

THE INTERACTION OF PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS ON THE
PARENTHOOD CHOICE OF PREPROFESSIONAL WOMEN

BY

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PARENTHOOD CHOICE OF PREPROFESSIONAL WOMEN

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The purpose of this study was to examine the relative contribution of three factors to women's decisions regarding childbearing. Perceptions of early parent-child relationships, general attitudes toward parenting and childbearing, and career, familial and marital role salience and involvement were examined for three distinctive groups of women: women already parents by choice; women currently postponing childbearing but planning to be parents in the future; and women who report a commitment to remaining childless voluntarily. This sample of women was between the ages of twenty-five and forty, had been married for a minimum of two years and was currently enrolled in graduate training at the University of Pittsburgh. A total of 120 women was sampled. The instruments utilized to assess the abovementioned variables were the Life Interpersonal History Enquiry, the Child Study Inventory and the Life Roles Inventory.

The results demonstrated that women who decided not to have children reported more paternal approval ($p \leq .05$), positive attention ($p \leq .01$) and encouragement to be independent and develop their abilities ($p \leq .01$) as well as receiving more maternal attention ($p \leq .0002$) than did women who

were postponing childbearing or who were already mothers. With regards to motivations for parenthood, mothers and females postponing parenthood tended to view children more altruistically ($p \leq .01$) while childless women tended to view parenthood in a more narcissistic sense ($p \leq .05$). Postponing women tended to be fatalistic in believing that parenthood was part of adulthood with there being little choice in having children ($p \leq .02$). Lastly, in analyzing the importance and salience of career, marriage and family across the groups, mothers and women postponing childbearing ascribed more personal fulfillment to the role of mother than did voluntarily childless women ($p < .0001$). There were not significant differences in the areas of marriage and career.

Six major interactions between variables differentiated between childless women, females postponing childbearing and mothers. The interactions were the father-daughter relationship interacting with career involvement; the mother-child relationship correlating with career involvement; the parent-child relationship correlating with the perceived satisfaction of motherhood; the motivations for childbearing reacting with the perceived fulfillment of motherhood; the responsibility assumed within the marriage with the reported reasons for childbearing; and the interaction of career involvement and satisfaction with the marriage.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

While many couples continue to consider parenthood an integral part of marriage, there is an increasing trend in this country toward perceiving parenthood as an option. The United States Census Bureau recently estimated that intentionally childless couples between the ages of fifteen and forty-four have risen to approximately eight to fourteen percent (Benson, 1979). This statistic is in drastic contrast to a similar report made by the same agency in 1967 in which it was reported that only one percent of couples expressed a desire for no children (Lester, 1974).

Approximately twenty percent of the women born in the United States between 1951 and 1955 (ages twenty-seven to thirty-one) are predicted to have only one child or none at all. Masnick (1980) further predicts from calculations presented by the most recent United States Census of Population that in the cohort of women born in the late 1950's, forty percent or more will remain childless or have only one child. These predictions indicate a growing trend in younger generations toward an attitude of optional parenthood.

Statement of the Problem

In recent years, research indicates an increasing trend towards women questioning their own identification with the role of mother by either postponing childbearing or remaining childless (Benson, 1979; Masnick, 1980). Such research indicates there

are a range of factors which influence a woman's decision to become a parent or remain childless. These factors may be categorized in three areas: family background influences; the female's role identity; and her attitude concerning the impact of a child on the marital relationship as well as her own lifestyle.

The research literature also suggests that certain familial factors influence the parenting decision. Several studies describe voluntary childless women as coming from families which (a) have low levels of warmth; (b) provide poor parental role models and (c) are reported as being oppressive (Bram, 1975; Frankel, 1976; Houseknecht, 1978). Often these childless women are the eldest child and assume the responsibility of parental child by becoming the caretaker of their younger siblings. There is a tendency towards little or no identification with their mother (Brougher, 1974; Harper, 1980; Houseknecht, 1977; Toomey, 1978). In view of their familial background, many voluntarily childless women appear to view motherhood as a burdened and unfulfilled state, therefore developing little if any identification with the role of mother (Thorton and Camburn, 1979).

Childless women are also likely to be well educated and to come from a middle or upper socio-economic status (Benson, 1979; Jones and Westoff, 1978). Religious orientation is absent of untraditional as a rule (Bottinelli, 1976).

Role identification also appears to influence the childbearing decisions. The majority of childless women have been shown to be achievement oriented and tend to become invested in and fulfilled by their career (Brougher, 1974). Consequently, childless wives often marry at a later

age than the normal population after they establish their career. These women are reported as being more egalitarian and less traditional as compared with women planning to have a family (Scanzoni, 1976).

The childbearing decision may be influenced by a woman's beliefs concerning the possible effect of the potential child might have on her life. Many women who choose to abstain from parenthood report perceiving children as a burden. Less time for themselves, imposition of their career, financial restrictions and general loss of control over their lives are the primary justifications attributed to these perceptions (Bottinelli, 1976; Harper, 1980; Knox and Wilson, 1978). Secondly, children may be a threat to the marital relationship as the couple must share one another with the child, no longer attaining as much attention from their mate. The resultant shift in sex roles becoming more traditional may further compound difficulties in the marriage. For example, resentment between mates may emerge when a couple who previously upheld an egalitarian marriage fall into stereotypic patterns of responsibility with the advent of the child (Benson, 1979; Bram, 1975; Burnside, 1973; Griswald, 1972; Harper, 1980; Houseknecht, 1979a). While many childless women are influenced by their friends, research indicates that generally their husbands are not (Peck, 1974). If the woman perceives her childless friends as having more time, money, freedom and a less conflictual marriage in comparison to her parental acquaintances, then she may be biased by this exposure (Balderston, 1971).

Since the decision to have children appears to be influenced by a number of variables, it appears more constructive to examine the interaction of several variables conjointly. Only recently have studies integrating

several factors been conducted (Crawford, 1979; Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1978; Thornton and Camburn, 1979). This study examined a combination of three such variables: a woman's perception of the childhood relationship with her parents; her reported level of commitment to career, family and marital roles and her motivation for motherhood.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the relative contribution of three factors to women's decisions regarding childbearing. Perceptions of early parent-child relationships, general attitudes toward parenting and childbearing, and career, family, and marital role salience and involvement were examined for three distinctive groups of women: women already parents by choice; women currently postponing childbearing but planning to be parents in the future; and women who report a commitment to remaining childless voluntarily.

Rationale

Although there is an increasing percentage of couples choosing to remain childless, by American norms this decision appears to still be considered a deviant one. Approximately one-third of the total group of couples who remain childless reported making this commitment before they became engaged to be married (Harper, 1980), and the remaining two-thirds decided to remain childless after they married. It is this latter group of couples who are more apt to pursue counseling to determining the value of children in their marriage. Counseling services designed for couples making this important decision have emerged within the last decade (Flapan and Schoenfeld, 1972; Whelan, 1975). Unfortunately, there is

little known concerning the interplay of variables influencing the childbearing decision.

By identifying necessary factors to examine in this decision-making process, it was hoped that counselors would have a theoretical foundation on which to draw and therapists would be enabled to deal more effectively with the potential group of couples who desire assistance in clarifying their needs and priorities concerning having/not having children. Consequently, the quality of counseling provided potentially childless couples could be improved.

Such counseling could benefit the unborn child as well (Veevers, 1974). The parents may resent the responsibility of a child, thereby taking out their frustrations physically and/or psychologically on the child. Needed love and guidance would not be provided. With the child abuse exceeding two million cases a year in the United States, it was evident that many children were unwanted. By obtaining effective therapy in supplementing their decision of whether to have children, many unwanted children who may be abused may be prevented. This may be accomplished by the couple acknowledging that they may function more effectively as a marital dyad as well as individuals if they do not have children.

A final rationale for having conducted this study stems from the controversial results of the pilot study. The relative lack of differences between the three subject groups of childless women, mothers and women postponing childbearing contradicts the majority of research in the field. Due to the discrepancy, the need for further assessment on the topic was evident which this study partially fulfilled.

Need for the Study

In the fall of 1981, Feldman reported the results of a study comparing parents and childless couples in regard to the relationships within the family of orientation, perceived sex roles and quality of the marital relationship. Although two of the three variables are those of this study, the results may be considered to be questionable in view of the instruments utilized. Not only were the tests outdated but the assumptions drawn from the results stretch beyond the scope of the assessment tool. Feldman's conclusions were strongly opposed by previously conducted research. As his research incorporated some of the more salient variables relating to childlessness, rather than build on his study, the same influences needed to be reexamined, tested by more powerful instruments.

Previous studies pertaining to childbearing which were reviewed have typically assumed that couples who had children wanted those children. Researchers did not account for children who were unplanned. Therefore, one frequently finds couples who have chosen to have children in the same subject pool with subjects who have unplanned children. Such an approach contaminates the study when the issue is the factors which influence the choice of whether to be a parent. Consequently, this study attempted to clarify this issue selecting only those mothers who indicated a voluntary choice for childbearing. This was done by inquiring during sample selection as to whether women planned to have their children.

Definition of Terms

Affection (Parental): The amount and quality of love received from parents.

Altruistic Causes for Childbearing: The unselfish motivations for parenthood.

Attitudes/Motivations Toward Parenting: The combined effect of variables making parenting either a perceived positive or negative experience.

Childless Women: Women who have been married for a minimum of two years and who, by choice, have decided not to have children as part of their marriage.

Control Behavior: The degree to which the child is allowed and encouraged to develop independence and personal abilities.

Control Feelings: The dissatisfaction with the parents' feelings about the child's abilities.

Fatalistic Causes for Childbearing: The notion that man is brought into the world to procreate and perpetuate the species.

Inclusion Behavior: The amount of parental attention received.

Inclusion Feelings: The dissatisfaction with how important parents feel the child is.

Instrumental Causes for Childbearing: The belief that the child has utility and is to be used as a means to an end.

Involuntarily Childless Women: Women who are unable to procreate or have husbands who are sterile.

Level of Career Role Involvement: The degree to which one perceives oneself as being responsible to one's career.

Level of Career Role Salience: The degree of self investment and satisfaction expected from one's career role.

Level of Family Role Involvement: The degree to which one perceives oneself as being responsible to one's role of mother.

Level of Family Role Salience: The degree of self involvement and satisfaction expected from one's family role.

Level of Marital Role Involvement: The degree to which one perceives oneself as being responsible to one's marriage.

Level of Marital Role Salience: The degree of self investment and satisfaction expected from one's career role.

Mothers: Women who have been married for a minimum of two years and who, by choice, have one or more children or are pregnant with their first planned child.

Narcissistic Causes for Childbearing: The expectations that the child will reflect glory upon the parent.

Parental Disapproval: The child's perception of the way in which parents want the child to be better than she is.

Perceptions of Parent-Child Relationships: The perceived quality of the subjects relationship with her own parents when she was approximately six years of age.

Postponers: Women who have been married for a minimum of two years and who, by choice, have postponed childbearing but intend to have children in the future.

Organization of the Study

The remainder of this research is organized in the following format. Chapter II presents the review of the relevant literature. The methodology is detailed in Chapter III followed by Chapter IV which describes

the results of the study. A summary of the study, including conclusions, limitations and the possible implications is presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature presented in this chapter summarizes research on factors affecting women's decisions to have children. The opening section provides a review of the historical trends in attitudes toward childbearing. The second section describes research on the impact of early childhood experiences on later childbearing decisions. In the third section, research on motivations for childbearing are examined. The fourth section describes the literature on sex role perceptions as they relate to the childbearing decisions. The final section presents the results of a pilot study conducted by the author examining the variables to be assessed in this study.

Historical and Current Trends in Attitudes Toward Childbearing

Historically, Americans tend to hold strong pronatalist attitudes (Blake, 1979). Yet the incidence of couples who remain voluntarily childless has vacillated drastically for the past century as indicated by periodical fertility studies. Primary variables influencing childbearing have been the prevalence of laywomen's knowledge concerning methods of birth control, the economic stability of the country as well as the stability of the family unit and the percentage of women in the work force.

With the advent of the diaphragm in the 1880's, women began to gain some degree of control over their bodies and their rate of reproduction. Birth control information, however, was seldom dispersed and large families

were strongly desired and encouraged so that the average birth rate was seven children per family (Glick, 1976). During the nineteenth century, women gave birth to as many children as possible primarily for economic reasons. Since the majority of the population was agriculturally based, more children in the family meant more working hands at home. Federal child labor laws did not go into effect until 1938 so that even families that were not agriculturally based could send their children to work in the local factories. The Puritan work ethic appears to have been as applicable for children as for adults. Thus children represented a needed economic asset to the family.

Another factor reported to promote childbearing both before the turn of the century and, to some degree today, is that of dominant religious beliefs. The worship of parenthood and the repulsion of being barren are found throughout the Bible (Pohlman, 1970). Even today, the Roman Catholic Church does not acknowledge those marriages in which there is not an intent to have children. In addition, birth control is prohibited by the Pope. Because of the moral implications, as late as 1920, a physician was imprisoned for a term of two years for educating a woman in methods of birth control (Peck, 1974). The current Right to Life movement indicates the remaining religious sanctions surrounding childbearing.

By the depression year of 1936, total fertility had dropped significantly to 2.1 children per family. The late 1930's demonstrated that many marriages had been delayed as a result of the inability of young couples to support themselves. Established marriages voluntarily reduced the number of children born as children were no longer the economic asset they once had been. Work was no longer available for adults, much less children. Industrial and agricultural production were at low ebb.

Through the duration of World War II there were extensive dislocations of family life. As a result, the marriage and birth rates remained low.

Nineteen hundred forty-one heralded the first study of fertility in the United States. Fertility research, which reflects the popular attitudes toward desired family size during a specific era, has periodically been conducted in the United States for three major purposes. The first justification is to discover social and psychological factors associated with fertility differences. Another objective is to study the fertility expectations and behavior of significant sectors of the population, cross sectionally and over time, for the purpose of analyzing current fertility levels and projecting future fertility. To provide a baseline and change measurements for specific populations in connection with family planning action programs is the last purpose of fertility studies. While some studies focus on only one objective, others combine purposes.

The Indianapolis Study of 1941, designed to determine the psychological explanatory factors for the differences in fertility, interviewed 1,444 white Protestant couples who had completed childbearing to determine the effects of status and security, community and family background, interest in home and children, personality characteristics, marital adjustment and husband-wife dominance on the rate of childbirth. While the study was extensive, the testing method presented many fallacies and few positive findings. Variance in childbearing was found to be due only to socioeconomic variables (Fawcett, 1970; Masnick, 1980; Whelpon and Kiser, 1946).

With the return of soldiers following World War II, marriage and divorce rates skyrocketed and by the mid-1950's, the baby boom was clearly evident. All but four percent of those at the height of childbearing age married. The fertility rate reached a peak of 3.8 children per family (Glick, 1976).

In 1955, the second fertility study was introduced. The Princeton Study, also designed to determine the psychological variables influencing fertility rates, questioned 1,165 white females who had just given birth to their second child. These same women were interviewed again three years later, followed by a final interview six to ten years later. It was found that each birth altered the family's situation and therefore affected the probability of the timing of future births. Personality variables were found to be insignificant in the fertility rate (Fawcett, 1970).

The Growth of American Families Study (GAF) was completed in 1955 with a follow up in 1960. The purpose was to develop a fertility projection as well as to ascertain the social variables determining fertility. Results showed there was a strong consensus for a two to four child family in the American culture. Social differentials in fertility desires, which implied that lower class families had more children, as well as the actual number of children born, were narrowing. Most families, regardless of socioeconomic status, region of residence, religion, education and contraceptive practices were opting for two to four children (Fawcett, 1970).

By 1957, the baby boom started to level and the early 1960's evidenced a reduction in birth rate. The birth control pill gained widespread recognition, creating an even greater reduction in birth rate (Glick, 1976).

From 1966 to 1970, the Knowledge About Physiology of Reproduction and Contraception Study (KAP) was conducted. Attitudes and values about the desired family size, pregnancy and the use of contraception were examined. It was found the women expressed a desire for smaller families than they were likely to have by the end of their reproductive period in view of their birth control methods. Women proved to know little about

contraception but voiced a strong desire to learn more effective methods (Fawcett, 1970).

By the early 1970's the marriage rate had increased significantly. The number of women who remained single until twenty to twenty-four years of age increased by one third from 1960 as compared to 1970 (Macklin, 1980). Desire for children decreased as evidenced by the Census Bureau figures. In 1967, only one out of one-hundred wives expressed a desire for no children (Lester, 1974). By 1971, that figure had risen to four out of one-hundred (Lester, 1974) and by 1979, ten percent wished to remain childless (Macklin, 1980). Nineteen-seventy-three prefaced the lowest birth rate in the country's history with an average of 1.9 children per family, an insufficient number to replace the present population. Some of the biological causes contributing to the reduced birth rate were the technical effectiveness of the birth control pill, greater education of alternate forms of birth control, increased voluntary sterilization and the legalization of abortion. The reduction in birth rate was not an American phenomenon but was also found in Sweden, West Germany, Japan, Hungary, Rumania, Denmark and England (Benson, 1979).

Individual studies clearly demonstrate the reduction in the number of individuals planning to have children. Shea, Werley, Rosen and Ager (1973) found in a study of 6,333 undergraduate nursing students and 712 nursing faculty that five percent of the students and thirty-four percent of the faculty expected to have no children. In interviewing one-hundred women, ages nineteen to seventy-five, Wall and Kaltreider (1977) reported the younger population showed a substantial decrease in the wish for formal marriage and a reduction in the desire for children. In an unscientific and informal study in 1977, Ann Landers asked her readers, "If you had

it to do all over again, would you have children?" Of more than 40,000 responses, seventy percent were "no." The reasons given were that young children represented a resented imposition on the parents' freedom, teenagers were frequently in trouble and retired couples felt forgotten by their children. It should be strongly pointed out, however, that those individuals who are dissatisfied would be more likely to respond to the survey.

Approximately twenty percent of the women born in the United States between 1951 and 1955 (ages twenty-seven to thirty-one) are predicted to have only one child or none at all. Masnick (1980) further predicts from calculations presented by the United States Census of Population, that forty percent or more of women born in the late 1950's may remain childless or have only one child. Whatever the final results, the current trend toward delayed childbearing has allowed an increasing amount of childless time during young adulthood.

It is difficult to estimate the current rate of voluntarily childless couples for two reasons. To begin with, it is impossible to be assured who is being honest in reporting they are biologically sterile as many voluntarily childless couples use this response to avoid the stigma that accompanies choosing not to have children (Benson, 1979). Secondly, many couples postponing childbearing are undecided as to their family size intentions. In view of these drawbacks, Benson (1979) postulates that voluntarily childless couples are between eight to fourteen percent of all married couples. It is estimated that approximately one third of the total number of childless couples are involuntarily childless (Peck, 1974). That statistic may be postulated to be currently overinflated as

the study was conducted in 1974 and the trend for voluntary childlessness has increased since that time.

While the childless rate is increasing, it is important to note that many women are having children in their mid-thirties to early forties (Harper, 1980). It may be speculated that one of the reasons for late childbearing is that couples realize that having a child becomes a matter of "now or never." Another possible explanation is that women plan to have children later in marriage in order to lay a firm foundation for their careers without the demands of children to detour them from professional pursuits. Therefore, although the reported rate of childlessness is growing, one may question the statistics as some of these childless couples are changing their minds.

As seen by an historical review of the birth rate in the United States, the primary motives for childbearing were varied. Societal expectations, lack of effective birth control until the 1960's, the economic advantage of having a large family and the low percentage of women in the work force were primary factors encouraging childbearing. Although few of these motives are as applicable today, society for the most part still promotes the idea that couples have children.

While children were previously an economic asset, they may now be considered by many to be a financial liability. In 1975, Whelan estimated that an expenditure of approximately \$80,000 to \$150,000 is required to support a child and put him/her through a state college. The economic influence on fertility is conceptualized by Easterline (1961, 1968) who emphasized that the more affluent the economy, the higher the birth rate while the more unstable economy tends to reduce fertility. Therefore,

in view of the current unstable economy, children may be viewed as economically detrimental.

Campbell (1974) reported in a survey of 2,165 adults that the happiest and most envied state in life for most Americans is to be newly married and not have children. This stage is viewed as secure, fulfilling, rewarding, exciting, free and intimate. Yet society seems to demand that this lifestyle be short-lived and expect children to enter the family within a few years of marriage. While the marriage may be relatively happy in its childless state, extensive subtle and overt pressure is applied to the couple. The American culture appears to be child-centered. Bias against childless couples is so strong that husbands and wives still cannot choose nonparenthood freely without being branded. Childless couples are credited with being totally self-involved, neurotic, in poor health, unsociable, having no concern with future generations, emotionally disturbed, immature, unwilling to sacrifice, confused, insensitive, unloving, unhappy, radically feministic, poorly adjusted, unable to get along with their parents, lonely, irresponsible, afraid to grow up and lacking self-identity (Blake, 1979; Jamison, Franzini and Kaplan, 1979; Rainwater, 1965).

Some of this strong sentiment seems to be beginning to shift. Douvan of the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research, questioned 2,400 adults both in 1957 and 1976. In 1957, four-fifths of the respondents saw childless couples as immoral, selfish or neurotic while the remaining subjects were neutral. By 1976, less than one quarter of the subjects expressed negative sentiments toward the concept of childlessness while two-thirds were neutral and the remaining fraction positive (Douvan, 1979).

It should be pointed out, however, that while methodology was strong, this is the only study reporting a turning of views over time. In general, most studies reflect the sentiment that

. . . one should not have more children than one can support but one should have as many children as one can afford. To have fewer is regarded as an expression of selfishness, ill health or neurotic weakness; to have more is an expression of poor judgement or lack of discipline. (Rainwater, 1965, p. 150)

Although there is currently a growing acceptance of norms pertaining to childbearing, there are still those who make the parenting decision by social expectations rather than by choice.

Childhood Relationship with Parents

Research describes childless wives as coming from homes that are characterized by low levels of warmth and high levels of conflict. The family of origin is viewed by many of the wives as being an instrument of oppression, strongly against individuality, autonomy, spontaneity and equality (Frankel, 1976). In a study of eighty-three couples who are voluntarily childless as compared to those who are parents, Bram (1975) reported that childless women describe their natal homes as unstable and unhappy and in which children were seen as a source of parental discontent. In comparison, women who decided to become parents reported more happy childhood memories and were more likely to recreate the family size of their family of origin as demonstrated by Rainwater's 1963 study of 409 married women who were either voluntarily childless or already mothers.

Studies describe childless wives as reporting greater psychological distance from their parents than women who have children as Houseknecht (1977) established in interviewing fifty-one voluntarily childless couples between the ages of twenty-five and forty. Relationships with their mother

vary. Toomey (1978) reported in a survey of 175 women who plan children and sixty-three women who expect to remain childless that the group of childless women perceived their mother with little respect, often believing her to be cheated out of her own life, burdened, unfulfilled and oppressed with the responsibility of raising children. As a result, they viewed motherhood as a life of sacrifice and martyrdom. While some reported affection, respect and sympathy for their mother, the childless wives had no desire to be like her nor did they identify with her as established by Harper (1980) in intensely interviewing fifty childless couples.

Toomey (1978), in surveying 175 childless women who plan children and sixty-three childless women who do not plan children, concluded that permanently childless wives generally viewed their parents as having had an unhappy marriage. In addition, Toomey also reported that their parents tended to expect achievement of their children and were consequently demanding. In contrast, women who had highly positive attitudes about their mothers and related a happy childhood had highly positive feelings toward motherhood as established by Brougher (1974) in administering the Aspects of Motherhood Questionnaire to 121 college females. Harper (1980) explains the difference in childhood experiences correlating to the incidence of childlessness as stemming from the parental role model. Strained natal family relations may add further support for a perceived inability to fulfill parental roles successfully. Being close to someone who was not an "ideal parent" may sustain the concept that not all people should raise children.

Women who decided to remain childless are also reported as coming from large families with intense sibling rivalry in which the female is

largely responsible for the well-being of her younger siblings (Burnside, 1973; Harper, 1980; Levine, 1979; Stokes and Johnson, 1977; Thoen, 1977). This older daughter may frequently play the parental-child role of mother within the family structure, thereby possibly sacrificing her own childhood.

The childhood experience in the family of origin differs between groups in that the childless woman tends to emerge from a family characterized as conflictual, unsupportive and oppressive. It therefore appears plausible that the childhood relationship with one's own parents would play a significant role in the woman's identification with the role of mother and her consequent decision of parenthood.

Motivations Toward Childbearing

With the vast majority of couples joining the ranks of parents, there are a multitude of voiced justifications for doing so. Rabin (1968) presents a concise, organized format outlining four categories describing the reasons for choosing a lifestyle including parenthood. The four categories are altruistic, fatalistic, narcissistic and instrumental.

Altruistic reasons for having children are defined as the affection for children and the need to express nurturance. Specifically, parents describe the joy of experiencing a fetus in one's uterus, delivering one's baby, breastfeeding and cuddling a baby next to one's skin.

Fatalistic reasons are described as the perception that man was brought into this world to procreate and perpetuate the species. It is man's fate and human destiny to bear children. Parents verbalize childraising as a natural part of life and a necessary stage in adult development. It is also believed that a woman's primary role and purpose in life is to bear children.

Narcissistic reasons for having children are those factors that will psychologically and socially benefit the parent. It is in this category that the literature is inundated with justifications. Typical narcissistic explanations would be that the child will reflect glory on the parent; "prove" his/her masculinity/femininity; "prove" his/her physical, biological and psychological adequacy; provide pride and satisfaction in molding a human life; bring flattery of seeing oneself in one's child; offer a creative, emotionally satisfying experience; force one to continue to grow personally; "prove" adult status; provide social identity; make one feel powerful and offer constant stimulation and novelty.

The last category of reasons for parenthood proposed by Rabin is instrumental, described as the utility of the child or how the child may be used as a means to an end. This is an extensive list as well, including the reasons that the child will force a marriage; punish a partner; hold a marriage together; provide financial and emotional security in old age; bring a couple closer emotionally, thereby making the marriage happier and more stable; provide immortality and a purpose in life; allow the parent to live vicariously through the child thereby attaining satisfaction in avocational desires; add a new dimension to the marital relationship; allow one to achieve a better self in their offspring; make one more socially accepted by meeting society's expectations; promise an heir to the bloodline; prolong one's youthfulness by being a companion of a child and prevent loneliness (Beckman, 1977; Bottinelli, 1976; Bram, 1975; Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Meade and Sing, 1973; Nason, 1976; Pohlman, 1969; Riegel, 1974; Thompson, 1980; Thompson and Thompson, 1979; Whelan, 1975).

While the literature presents many motivations to have children, there are also reasons not to have children offered as well. As many as two million children may be abused or neglected each year in the United States and the numbers are rising (Nason, 1976). If all children had been wanted and parents were committed to the serious responsibility of raising children, then the statistics would not be as tragic. Yet only recently have couples had the opportunity to decide to refrain from parenthood.

Children are frequently perceived as a burden financially, personally and professionally. In questioning 600 subjects from diverse demographic origins in 1976, Bottinelli (1976) found that motivational factors affecting birth planning are primarily antinatalistic. He postulated this indicates that subjects generally attribute greater importance to negative considerations attached to having children. In 1978, Knox and Wilson completed a study of 144 mothers of two children to determine the consequences of having a second child. Responses indicated that while the impact of the first child was greater than that of the second, the latter involved less time for self, more work, more money, more noise and decreased marital happiness. No consensus of positive factors was offered.

Fawcett (1973) described four types of disadvantages in having children: 1) restrictions on freedom; 2) the emotional and physical demands on the parents; 3) the financial burden and 4) the unfavorable effects on the marital relationship. The restriction on freedom is one of the most frequently mentioned reasons for remaining childless. This not only includes personal freedom to pursue goals but also to be spontaneous in doing what one wants to do when one wants to do it. Women

who have chosen to remain childless perceive their choice as "freedom giving" and "growth promoting" as Goodbody (1977) reported in informally interviewing six voluntarily childless wives. The choice of a childless lifestyle allows the freedom to pursue novel experiences, change jobs or to continue one's education (Meade and Sing, 1973). The woman's career may also be at stake with the advent of children. Without children, the woman may realize she is freer to obtain an education or be more involved in her uninterrupted career, to be more likely to be considered for promotions or to be able to obtain more satisfaction from her work in which she may become more involved.

The emotional and physical demands expected from the parent are also reported to be a major deterrent to parenthood. Gaylin (1977) reported in interviewing thirty-one voluntarily childless women, ages nineteen to thirty who had requested sterilization, that many perceived children as being an overwhelming responsibility and feared they would be bad mothers or emotionally destroyed by their children. These women did not want to contend with children's mess and noise as well as the responsibility of sacrificing their time on a twenty-four hour basis. Another fear expressed in Gaylin's study is that there is virtually a fifty-fifty chance that one of the parents may end up raising the child alone due to death or divorce, creating an even greater emotional and physical strain. Some also reported feeling responsible for not bringing children into the world in its unstable state and avoiding contributing to the problem of overpopulation.

The financial burden of children is also a very real concern. In 1973, raising a child was estimated to cost between \$80,000 to \$150,000 by

middle class standards and to send him/her to a state college (Whelan, 1975). Considering inflation, those figures would be significantly higher in today's market. One must also consider the loss of income as well as the loss of potential promotions if the woman leaves the work force entirely or reduces her work hours. As a result of the increased financial burden, the lifestyle of the couple may be forced to change.

The last primary reason offered for not having children is the possible unfavorable effect on the marital relationship. There may be more restricted interactions, the couple must share one another with the children and stress may be increased as a result of the disruption (Frankel, 1976). This resentment may eventually be expressed in the marital relationship. If a marriage is extremely satisfying to the couple, they may be reluctant to disrupt their bliss as a child may interfere with the intimate husband-wife relationship (Harper, 1980). Furthermore, if a woman is required to stay home with the children after having had frequent interactions with the outside world through her career or social life, then she may resent the restriction.

As indicated in weighing the motivations for parenthood, there are several positive and negative aspects of childbearing. The extensive ramifications of parenthood alter the lifestyle of the couple in both beneficial and detrimental modes which are frequently considered in the decision making process.

Childbearing As Influenced by the Degree of Commitment to Marriage

The literature indicates that children tend to have a detrimental effect on the marital relationship. Instead of bringing husbands and wives closer together, Feldman (1979) found in interviewing 850 couples that children were perceived as driving couples apart by creating new

tensions or serving as a battleground for old ones. As a result, a couple's satisfaction with marriage and with each other frequently dropped dramatically with the birth of the first child. Marital satisfaction did not regain its previous level until the youngest child left home. Spouses may not get the love and attention they are accustomed to and may feel rejected by the partner, As a result, they may blame the partner for situations that are essentially caused by the pressures of childraising. Campbell (1975) found in surveying 2,164 adults that couples with small children reported the greatest amount of stress. Childless husbands over thirty reported the highest satisfaction with life and felt less pressure than most men.

One of the most frequently mentioned objectives of marriage for both men and women is companionship. Yet companionship is often one of the most affected aspects of marriage when children are introduced. In a survey by Rosenblatt and Hillabrandt (1972) of the University of Minnesota Family Social Science Department, it was shown that couples who walk with children in public places touch each other, talk or smile at one another less than couples without children it tow.

The birth of a child commonly marks a definite point that the parent is a responsible adult and can never return to being a child. This change of status may be threatening to some individuals. A child elicits new feelings that the couple may have a difficult time sharing with one another. While they may actually have an increasing need for support from one another, they are often hesitant to express their needs. Furthermore, they may not allow themselves the opportunity to cope mutually because they are not sharing open communication. While they have definite needs,

the parents may ask for their physical or emotional needs to be met in the name of the child. For example, a mother who wishes to spend more time with her spouse may ask her husband to be home more under the guise of being able to play with their son. If their needs are unmet, a parent may express their anger on or through the child which sets up a destructive triangle through which little is resolved (Houseknecht, 1979).

Factors influencing the effect of children on the marriage are the age of the couple, how long they have been married and whether the pregnancy is planned and/or desired. The older the couple, the longer they have been married and the fact that the infant is planned create a better adjustment probability for the couple (Hobbs and Wimbish, 1977). Houseknecht (1979) believes that young couples need to be unified with one another as children may try to push between their parents in order to attain what they desire. Therefore, the more secure a couple is with one another, the more easily they tend to work together as a unified couple and children may do less damage to the marriage.

The marital relationship may also suffer as a result of the change of roles. Parents may start living for their children instead of themselves so that the parental role supercedes the spouse role and the couple no longer see themselves as husband and wife but as Mom and Dad (Houseknecht, 1979). Frequently, sexual distancing occurs. The woman may have difficulty accepting that she can be both mother and wife and is therefore easily distracted from intimacy by her child's needs. To complicate matters, the male's sexual drive biologically usually decreases at this state in life. The marriage often becomes stale during this stage as the husband may become bored with his wife. If she was employed at the time of marriage, then she may have had more outside contacts and therefore

may have been more interesting to him. If, however, she concentrated only on the infant, the husband may become bored with her as well as the wife becoming bored with her own existence (Lasswell, 1974).

Research tends to indicate that childless marital relationships are happier, more satisfying and intimate. University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research interviewed more than 2,000 childless couples and the same number of parental couples. Seventy-eight percent of the childless men and seventy-three percent of childless wives reported themselves as being happy. Only sixty-five percent of men and sixty-four percent of women in couples whose youngest child was less than six considered themselves to be at least content. Families whose youngest child ranged from six to seventeen improved the parental statistics by only one percent.

Houseknecht (1979a) in interviewing fifty-one voluntarily childless couples between the ages of twenty-five and forty reported them to be more cohesive and tending to have greater marital satisfaction than parental couples. She attributes the difference partially to the tendency that childless couples engage in outside interests more frequently with their spouse and exchange stimulating ideas more frequently. The childless are also more determined to continue the marital relationship, experience greater amounts of agreement on household tasks and share a greater number of leisure time interests.

The marital relationship itself is also perceived as being more essential to those who decide to remain childless than those who become parents. The childless feel their lives are easier and more enjoyable without the responsibility of children. They believe themselves to have more time and energy to enjoy and appreciate one another as well as being

able to travel and be spontaneous together as reported by Harper (1980) in interviewing fifty childless couples. Marriage is frequently perceived as having had the primary positive effect on the individual's development (Bram, 1975). Parent couples and childless couples were compared by Griswold (1972) in their interactions within the couple dyad and with strangers. Results from this study described individuals who were parents that cooperated and communicated with strangers but communicated ineffectively and were reluctant to cooperate with their own spouses. Childless individuals communicated and cooperated as well if not better with their spouse than with a stranger. Therefore, the marital dyad of childless couples tends to be more essential, communicative and cooperative than parental couples.

As may be concluded, children do not solidify a marriage but tend to add conflict, stress and dissatisfaction. No beneficial effects of children to the marital relationship are mentioned in the literature. This may or may not be due to the tendency to take positive aspects for granted.

Whether positive or negative, the effect of children on the marriage will be given careful consideration by the women in deciding whether to have children. It may be speculated that the more positive the perceived effect of children on the marriage, the greater the probability of childbearing.

Childbearing as Influenced by the Degree of Commitment to Career

The career orientation and success of the wife appears to have a decided influence on the probability of choosing to be childless. Generally, the more devoted to her career, the greater the status and the longer she has been invested in her career, the less apt a woman is to have children or at least to have a large family.

The degree of the wife's resolve not to have children varies with her satisfaction with the job itself as well as her performance of that job and her recognized success, as reported by Beckman (1979) who interviewed 583 eighteen to forty-nine year old married women. Beckman concluded that the economic impact of the wife's income or potential income was less important in reducing fertility than was the psychological return from a career which was in the upper status bracket. This psychological return appeared to be an alternative form of gratification which replaced motherhood. Beckman reported that many women believed they could make a greater contribution to society and/or attain a greater sense of personal fulfillment by involving themselves in a career than by staying home with children.

Falbo, Graham and Gyskiewicz (1978) interviewed one hundred-five undergraduates and forty older women, averaging forty-six years of age, who are members of a women's organization devoted to educating the public on political issues. They found that the more traditionally feminine the occupation, the less devoted the woman tended to be towards her career. The less devoted the woman was to her career, the more apt she was to have children. Furthermore, women who were confused in career direction named a higher number of children in their projected family. It was concluded in this study that the less feminine the career and the more devoted a woman is to her career, the less apt she is to plan children. One may postulate that the less career oriented women experience more confusion in determining what job to pursue and these may be the women who see themselves in the role of mother and not as employed career woman. The husband's career interests may also effect a couple's plans for voluntary childlessness. Bram (1974) interviewed eighty-three childless and parental

couples and reported that husbands committed to remaining childless tended to be involved in more creative "feminine" fields. In view of the correlation between childbearing and personal investment in the woman's career, career commitment appears to be a primary variable to consider in a study of parenthood.

Effect of Perceived Sex Role on Childbearing

The perceived sex roles of the husband and especially of the wife may be considered to be one of the more important variables in the decision to remain childless. Sex roles frequently influence how much one is swayed by family, friends and society, their perception of ideal family size, the roles each plays within the marital relationship (egalitarian versus traditional) and the investment in one's career, all of which are variables in the decision of nonparenthood. The literature stresses the tendency that more traditional and feminine the woman, the more likely she is to have children.

While childless marriages appear to be in transition with both stereotypic and innovative patterns, generally they are egalitarian in nature both economically and domestically as reported by Burnside (1978) in a study of thirteen childless couples and eight parental couples. The husband in childless marriages tended to support his wife's career and hold nontraditional values. He was less likely to perceive himself as the "breadwinner" but viewed earning as a shared responsibility as both husband and wife hold careers.

Traditionalism in sex role definitions and orientation in both career and family setting tends to create the desire for larger families in both sexes but particularly for females (Beckman, 1979; deFronzo and Boudreau,

1977; Eagly and Anderson, 1974; Fisher, 1978; Hamilton, 1977; Joesting, 1976; Jones and Westoff, 1978; Teicholz, 1977; Toomey, 1978). Those who do not plan to have children tend to be androgynous. Thornton and Camburn (1979) concluded from the United States National Fertility Study of married women under forty-five years of age that the most crucial aspect in determining fertility was the extent the woman identified the female role as that of housewife and homemaker. Women with traditional sex role definitions were more likely to have more children, less likely to be working and have fewer plans to work in the future. Furthermore, women with more traditional views tended to feel they had little control over their lives. It may be postulated that wives who see their role as being more traditional, i.e., mother and homemaker, prolong those roles by having more children. As reported by Harper (1980) in interviewing fifty childless couples, men who perceive themselves as the "breadwinner" are far more likely to become fathers.

Scanzoni (1976) indicates that sex role perceptions are changing over time. From 1971 when 366 undergraduates were surveyed, to 1974 when 388 undergraduates were interviewed, both males and females became less traditional in their attitudes toward sex role norms.

Pilot Study

To clarify the most salient combination of factors influencing the decision of having children versus remaining childless, a pilot study was conducted to compare the differences between mothers, women postponing childbearing and childless women on variables related to their own parent-child relationship, motivations for childbearing and their perceived commitment to career, marriage and family.

Research Design

Twenty-seven women who were either students or the wives of students in the Counselor Education Department at the University of Florida or were active members of a social organization for law students' wives in the College of Law at the same university participated in a preliminary study to assess differences between mothers, postponers and childless women. There were nine subjects in each group. The nine mothers had been married an average of 8.4 years and were a mean age of 31.8. Postponers averaged 3.2 years of marriage and were 26.3 years old. The nine childless women had a mean age of 31.3 and had been married for six years.

The Results of Pilot Study

Results of this preliminary study indicated there were no significant differences in the perception of the relationship as measured by the Life Interpersonal History Inventory in regard to how much parental attention they received ($p \leq .58$) and how important they felt they were to their father ($p \leq .88$).

There were also no significant differences between the three groups in their perception of how important they felt they were to their mother ($p \leq .25$). However, there was a significant difference in the perceptions of women who have chosen to become mothers in feeling they did not get enough attention from their own mothers in comparison with those women who have decided to remain childless ($p \leq .0095$). No significant differences were noted between groups as to the perceptions of how much autonomy the child was encouraged to develop with her father ($p \leq .33$) or her mother ($p \leq .84$).

Furthermore, there were no significant differences between their perceptions of how the father viewed the child's abilities ($p \leq .64$) or the

mother's own viewpoint of her child's capabilities ($p \leq .98$). There were no significant differences noted in how much of the affection experienced was given by the father ($p \leq .79$) or mother ($p \leq .49$) across the three groups. There were no significant differences noted in how much parental disapproval was experienced from the father ($p \leq .26$) or mother ($p \leq .75$) across the three groups.

As measured by Rabin's Motivations for Childbearing Questionnaire, there were no significant differences in attitudes on either the Altruistic ($p \leq .36$), Fatalistic ($p \leq .37$), Instrumental ($p \leq .89$) or Narcissistic ($p \leq .36$) reasons for having children across the three groups. There were also no significant differences in the sex-role structure in the areas of career ($p \leq .91$), family ($p \leq .50$) and marriage ($p \leq .87$) across the three groups as measured by the Life Roles Inventory. There were no significant differences in the achievement expectations in the areas of career ($p \leq .43$) and marriage ($p \leq .91$) across the three groups. However, there were significant differences between the voluntarily childless women and postponing women in the areas of family ($p \leq .0005$) as well as between childless women and mothers ($p \leq .0001$) as measured by the Life Roles Inventory with the childless group being less traditional in the area of family.

There were no significant differences between the three groups for the need of dominance in the areas of career ($p \leq .55$), family ($p \leq .86$) or marriage ($p \leq .96$) as measured by the Life Roles Inventory.

An interactional analysis was not conducted due to the small sample size.

Conclusions of Pilot Study

There was no evidence which demonstrated that voluntarily childless women, those postponing childbearing and mothers differ in their familial background, attitudes toward childbearing or commitment towards career, family and marriage. While these results are in discordance with the majority of studies concerning fertility, they do concur with the most recently published results on the topic (Feldman, 1981). However, it must be pointed out that as there were only twenty-seven subjects in the study, powerful conclusions may not be based on the results. Therefore, a broader study involving a larger population needs to be conducted to investigate the interaction of these variables to determine significance in order to better understand the variables involving the decision of childbearing.

CHAPTER III RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The significance of early parent-child experiences upon women's decision regarding childbearing has been established by previous research. The benefits of examining women's attitude regarding parenting and work as well as family roles have been suggested as well. Examining women's childbearing choices in light of all three factors conjointly seems especially crucial for understanding the relative impact of such factors upon women's decision making in this area.

The purpose of this study was to examine women's decision to bear children as a joint function of early childhood relations with parents, attitudes regarding parenting and childbearing and the salience of career, marital and family roles. Three groups of graduate student women were assessed in their decisions regarding childbearing. Group membership was determined by whether the female already had children, did not currently have children but planned to have children in the future or had decided not to have children as part of her marriage. The woman's childhood relationship with her parents was measured by the Life Interpersonal History Enquiry. The Child Study Inventory measured the female's motivations for childbearing, while the level of salience and involvement within the roles of career, marriage and family was assessed by the Life Roles Inventory.

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

HO₁--There is no significant difference among the three groups of women in terms of their perceptions of their early parent-child relationship as measured by the Life Interpersonal History Enquiry.

HO₂--There is no significant difference among the three groups of women in terms of their general attitudes toward childbearing and parenting as measured by Rabin's Child Study Inventory.

HO₃--There is no significant difference among the three groups of women in terms of the degree of marital, career and family role salience as measured by the Life Role Inventory.

HO₄--There is no significant difference among the three groups of women in terms of the relationships between the variables of parent-child relationship perceptions; attitudes toward parenting; and career, marital and family role salience.

Research Design

A correlational ex post facto design (Kerlinger, 1973) was used in this research. Correlational research "investigates the extent to which variables in one factor correspond with variations in one or more factors based on correlational coefficients" (Isaac and Michael, 1977, p. 21). Given that the three independent variables could not be controlled and had to be measured simultaneously in their natural setting, a correlational design lent itself to this research problem. The dependent variable in this study was membership in one of three groups: women who had made the decision to have children and had actualized that decision; women who postponed childbearing; and women who had decided not to bear children.

The three independent variables were perception of early parent-child relationship; motivations for parenthood; and career, marital and family salience. Scores on the Life Interpersonal History Enquiry, Child Study Inventory and Life Roles Inventory provided the research data. Intra-group comparisons were made in terms of the three independent variables. In addition, intergroup comparisons of the relationships between the three independent variables were also made.

Sample

Subjects in this study consisted of one-hundred twenty women, between the ages of twenty-four and forty, enrolled as graduate students at the University of Pittsburgh. Subjects were assigned to one of three groups: mothers, women postponing childbearing and voluntarily childless women. Each group was comprised of forty women, based upon their reported childbearing decision. Graduate student women were chosen as the population to be sampled due to the fact that previous research suggests that women who choose to remain childless tend to be well educated, upwardly mobile socially, autonomous and career oriented. Therefore, it was assumed that a graduate student population might be comprised of a larger than average childless population.

Women rather than couples were sampled due to the difficulty in having both spouses respond to the questionnaires and evidence in the literature that the wife maintains primary power in the decision of having children.

A maximum age of forty was established as the upper age limit of this population for the following reasons. The subject pool was intended to be homogeneous. Since one of the variables being tested was sex role identification, age could present a confounding variable. Age may correlate

with sex roles as an older population of women might tend to have children as the childless choice tends to be a recent phenomenon.

Subjects were divided into three categories: those women who had decided to remain childless, those who planned to begin childbearing in the future and those who had already begun to raise a family by choice. Group membership was determined by their responses to various questions on the "Demographic Questionnaire." Specifically, those questions were 1) Do you have children? If so, did you plan to have children? 2) If you do not have children, do you intend to have children in the future? 3) If you do not intend to have children, is this by choice or physiological circumstance?

Wives who were undecided about having children, or were involuntarily sterile and those who had unplanned children were not included in the subject population. Women who were pregnant with their first child were classified as mothers.

Sampling Procedures

A list of married graduate students was obtained from the Registrar at the University of Pittsburgh. The researcher called, in alphabetical order, all married female graduate students. The purpose of the study was explained to the women as further understanding the decision-making process regarding childbearing. Each woman was asked if she had children or intended to have children in the future. Women who were ambivalent concerning childbearing were not invited to participate in the study. The researcher stressed to each potential subject that it was preferable that the subject decline to participate rather than agree to participate and fail to return the completed questionnaire. If a woman declined to

participate, the next woman on the list was asked to cooperate. The researcher continued telephoning the subject pool of married women until fifty subjects were obtained in each of the three subject groups. No further subjects were accepted within each specific subject group once fifty subjects were obtained in each group.

Upon subject agreement, the questionnaires, a cover letter, an informal consent form and a stamped return envelop were mailed to each participant's home. Subjects were assigned a number which was placed on the questionnaire set. Subjects were informed that they would have one and one-half weeks to respond. If the questionnaires were not received within two weeks time, the researcher contacted the subject by phone to remind each woman to complete the questionnaires. Once a minimum of forty subjects in each group had returned completed questionnaires, the subject list of names were destroyed to insure confidentiality.

Instrumentation

Four questionnaires were utilized in the study. Demographic information was obtained through a questionnaire developed for use in this study. The Life Interpersonal History Enquiry (LIPHE), a FIRO Awareness Scale, assessed the woman's perceptions of her childhood relationship with her parents. The Child Study Inventory was used to assess motivation to have children. Salience of career, marital and family roles was assessed by use of the Life Roles Inventory.

Basic Demographic Information Sheet

The Basic Demographic Information Sheet (Appendix B) assessed the woman's age, length of marriage and family lifestyle chosen. If the couple had children, she was asked if these children were planned and

if additional children were planned. If there were no children, the woman indicated if she intended to have children in the future and, if so, how many she hoped to have. If no children were planned, she determined if this was by choice or a result of physiological inability. The primary purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information regarding the independent variable, that of fertility, in order to assess which subject group to categorize the woman.

Life Interpersonal History Enquiry (LIPHE)

The Life Interpersonal History Enquiry (LIPHE), a section of the FIRO test series developed by M. Schutz, Ph.D., assesses the respondent's perceptions of her relationship with her parents before she was six years old. There are separate scales for relationship with each parent as well as for the respondent's perception of her parent's marital relationship.

The entire FIRO series is derived from Schutz's three dimensional theory of interpersonal behavior which centers on the needs of inclusion, control and affection. These dimensions are measured in the areas of both behavior and feelings with a Guttman-type scale. As the FIRO series measures the relative strength of the needs within the individual, they are not intended to compare an individual to the general population. Therefore, norms are not provided.

All items of the LIPHE are given in terms of the dissatisfaction, if any, with what the woman recalls of her parents' behavior and feelings. Scales range from one to six, six being high agreement with the statement while one indicates no agreement.

In testing the LIPHE scale on 5,874 subjects, the reproducibility on the six scales ranged from 93 to 96. Analysis reveals high correlations

among the interpersonal dimensions of inclusion, control and affection and between scales for father and mother. There is a tendency for the feeling scales to be more highly intercorrelated than the behavior scales.

Schutz's scales and a description of these needs in his terms are as follows:

The Inclusion Behavior Scale measures the amount of parental attention received. Problems of working, divorced or missing parents are relevant to this scale. A high score indicates dissatisfaction with the amount of attention received from the parents. Sometimes this feeling leads to extremes of inclusion either of timidity and discomfort when being with people or of avoiding people contact.

The Inclusion Feeling Scale measures dissatisfaction with how important parents felt the child was. If the child perceived her parents felt the child was unimportant (high score), the child may have internalized the feeling of unimportance. Dissatisfaction of inclusion feeling is often related to dissatisfaction on inclusion behavior in that children frequently infer their own lack of importance from the impressions that their parents preferred to spend their time with other things.

The Control Behavior Scale measures the degree to which the child was allowed and encouraged to develop independence and personal abilities. A high score indicates dissatisfaction due to lack of freedom. In reaction to their childhood situation, high scorers often find themselves asserting their independence or continuing to be dependent as they have had little chance to develop their assertion.

The Control Feeling Scale measures dissatisfaction with parent's feelings about the child's abilities. Dissatisfaction (high score) may lead the child to accept the parents' evaluation of incompetence and incapability.

The Affection Scale measures satisfaction with the amount and quality of love received from parents. As behavior and feelings are difficult to distinguish in the area of affection, this scale includes both. Dissatisfaction (high score) is often accompanied by a feeling of unlovability. This feeling may be expressed through avoiding close relations so that no one is allowed to find out who the individual really is.

The Parent Disapproval Scale measures the child's perception of how the parents wanted the child to be better than she was. A high score, indicating parental dissatisfaction, may cause the child to accept the parental evaluation that she is not a satisfactory individual.

The LIPHE was selected over other instruments as a result of the high reliability (range from .93 to .96) as well as its ability to examine various aspects of the parent-child relationship that may influence the woman's own decision of whether or not to have children.

The Child Study Inventory

The Child Study Inventory (CSI), developed by A. I. Rabin and R. J. Green of the Department of Psychology at Michigan State University, measures the individual's motivation for parenthood. Fourteen sentence stems related to parental motivation and four filler items are included. Each stem is followed by four completion choices which are categorized into one of the basic CSI motivational categories: altruistic, narcissistic, fatalistic and instrumental. Each completion choice is ranked from one to four, one being the most appropriate response and four being the least appropriate.

Over two hundred undergraduates from New York and Michigan were used to assess the CSI. A coefficient correlation derived by the product-

moment method was determined to be .97 for the entire inventory. Coefficients for the motivational categories are as follows: altruistic, .79; fatalistic, .54; narcissistic, .68; and instrumental, .53. All coefficients were statistically significant at the .01 level.

The Altruistic Scale refers to the unselfish motivations for parenthood such as affection and concern for children and the need to express affection.

The Fatalistic Scale expresses the notion that man was brought into the world to procreate and perpetuate the species. As parenthood is "the order of things," parenthood is preordained, being part of fate and human destiny.

The Narcissistic Scale refers to the expectation that the child will reflect glory upon the parent, prove his masculinity/femininity and "prove" his/her physical, biological and psychological adequacy.

The Instrumental Scale indicates that the child has utility and is to be used as a means to an end. The child is expected to be employed as a vehicle in the achievement of specific parental goals not listed under the narcissistic category.

The researchers attempted to formulate the categories to be as mutually exclusive as possible. Nonetheless, there remains some minor overlap. Statements were devised to present the classifications as clearly as possible.

Life Roles Inventory

The Life Roles Inventory is currently being refined by Ellen S. Amatea and E. Gail Cross at the University of Florida, Department of Counselor Education. The inventory was developed in an attempt to

more adequately and systematically assess the varied patterns of life role commitments of today's men and women. The inventory measures the degree of role salience and the level of involvement an individual ascribes to each of three major life roles: career, marital and parental. Role salience is defined as the perceived importance of a role in satisfying an individual's needs and values. Role involvement is defined as the extent of direct responsibility or authority an individual assumes for the execution of a specific role. The career or work life role consists of those non-family based work tasks for which an individual receives some compensation. The marital role consists of those tasks and functions related to the affective and material maintenance of a marriage. The parental role consists of those functions performed and rewards accrued in the rearing and maintenance of children.

Separate scale scores are computed for six areas: degree of career role salience; degree of marital role salience; degree of parental role salience; degree of career role involvement; degree of marital role involvement and degree of parental role involvement.

There are two different forms of the instrument. Form R is designed to measure the life role commitments of men and women currently engaged in one or several of the three life roles. Thus items of Form R reflect current functioning and aspirations in each of the three life roles. In contrast, Form E of the instrument is designed for use with younger populations whom, for the most part, are still anticipating participation in each of the three life roles (Amatea, 1982, Unpublished Manuscript). In view of the age and consequent developmental stage of the subjects, Form R of the Life Role Inventory will be used.

Cover Letter

The Cover Letter (Appendix A) stressed the need to better understand parenting attitudes. The decision of remaining childless was not addressed directly as some women may have become defensive concerning their untraditional decision. As defensiveness may have affected their responses, the purpose of the study remained vague to a limited degree. Subjects were provided with an estimated time range the responses may consume. Further directions were offered for the LIPHE in the event one of the parents was absent during the woman's childhood. A limit of one and one-half weeks was provided to complete and return the questionnaires. In order to obtain a summary of the results, subjects were requested to include their names and addresses on a separate piece of paper.

Analysis of Data

The results of this study were analyzed by using a Multiple One Way Analysis of Variance to obtain differences between groups. Significance was determined by the Wilks' Lambda Test for Significance (Huck, Cormier and Bounds, 1974). The relationship among the three groups was assessed utilizing a multiple discriminant function analysis. Analysis of data was computed by the Measurement and Evaluation Computer at the University of Pittsburgh under the direction of Dr. Carol Baker.

Limitations

One aspect which presented a particular limitation to the study was the population. Subjects selected were homogeneous in regard to sex, age, educational background and projected socio-economic lifestyle. Homogeneity automatically limited the applicability of the research results. While most women questioning childbearing would share similar

characteristics with the subjects in the study, these characteristics could not be assumed of all potentially childless women. Therefore, individuals utilizing the research findings would need to be aware of the generalizability with his/her own clientele.

A second limitation was the aspect of shrinkage associated with multiple correlations and discriminant function analysis. Multiple regression prediction equations are developed on the basis of a given subject group. Therefore, when the equation is applied to a new subject group, it may not work successfully with the new group as the subjects are not identical to the group used to develop the equation (Huck, Cormier and Bounds, 1974).

An additional limitation was that the input of the husband on the child-bearing decision is not considered. While the woman carries the majority of the power in this decision, it may be postulated that the husband would have some degree of influence on his wife to arrive at a mutually satisfying conclusion.

CHAPTER IV ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study investigated the attitudinal differences between three groups of graduate student women differing in their decisions regarding childbearing. Specifically, this study compared the results of three different attitude measures among mothers, women postponing childbearing and voluntarily childless women.

A multiple one-way analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the results from these data. A Wilks' lambda test for significance was utilized to determine the locus of mean score differences. A multiple discriminatory function analysis was used to assess the relationship among the three variables for each group. While some statisticians treat the multivariate one-way analysis of variance and the discriminant analysis as interchangeable, the discriminant analysis was used in addition to the multivariate analysis of variance for the purpose of identifying dimensions along which the groups differed (Pedhazur, 1982) and assessing the predictive value of the combined variables tested.

Perceptions of Early Parent-Child Relationships

The perceptions of each subject's relationship with her parents was measured by the twelve subscales of the Life Interpersonal History Enquiry.

HO₁ There is no significant difference among the three groups of women in terms of their perceptions of their early parent-child relationship as measured by the Life Interpersonal History Enquiry.

The multiple analysis of variance was conducted. Four of the twelve subscales of the LIPHE revealed significant differences distinguishing among the three groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The significant scales were Father's Control Behavior, Father's Parental Disapproval, Father's Inclusion Behavior and Mother's Inclusion Behavior. Computed F scores were outside the critical F limits at the .05 level of significance for each of these four subscales (Table 1). Analyses of the MANOVA for each scale of the LIPHE may be found in Appendix D (Tables D2-D13).

The first significant variable distinguishing between groups was the Father's Control Behavior ($p \leq .01$). This scale measures the degree to which the child was allowed and encouraged to develop independence and personal abilities. A one-way analysis of variance shows that this variable distinguished between childless women and mothers. There was no significant difference between childless females and women postponing childbearing on this variable (Table D4). By scale definition, the childless women reported to perceive more paternal encouragement to develop independence and potential as compared with mothers.

The second significant variable assessed in the LIPHE among the groups was Father's Parental Disapproval ($p \leq .05$) which measured the woman's perception of the way in which her parents wanted her to be better than she was as a child. The childless women sampled differed significantly from both the sample of postponing women and of mothers, with childless women perceiving more paternal approval for their behavior. There was no significant difference between postponing women and mothers on this variable (Table D10).

TABLE 1
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, UNIVARIATE F RATIOS AND MANOVA RESULTS FOR CHILDBEARING FACTORS

VARIABLE	CHILDLESS		POSTPONERS		MOTHERS		F RATIO
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	
Father's Inclusion Feelings	13.58	16.84	14.18	11.31	19.73	17.20	1.95
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	10.03	13.44	13.15	14.11	12.43	15.23	0.52
Father's Control Behavior	11.43	10.30	16.50	12.38	19.48	12.32	4.83**
Mother's Control Behavior	14.38	9.70	16.50	11.99	20.80	16.24	2.56
Father's Control Feelings	14.98	16.36	19.73	16.65	21.60	15.15	1.81
Mother's Control Feelings	18.23	15.69	21.25	17.52	16.73	17.35	0.75
Father's Affection	16.43	18.75	16.70	14.42	20.15	19.05	0.56
Mother's Affection	9.65	13.75	15.73	15.42	15.28	16.54	1.96
Father's Parental Disapproval	10.65	9.07	16.40	12.83	15.90	11.33	3.24*
Mother's Parental Disapproval	13.00	10.15	17.30	9.79	16.78	10.47	2.15
Father's Inclusion Behavior	13.23	15.47	22.15	15.12	23.18	17.65	4.61**
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	9.75	12.01	22.88	14.18	18.33	14.59	9.42**
Altruistic Motivations	24.00	9.62	20.18	7.40	19.93	5.86	4.77**

TABLE 1--continued

VARIABLE	CHILDLess		POSTPONERS		MOTHERS		F RATIO
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	
Fatalistic Motivations	33.83	7.53	36.93	6.70	32.48	7.13	4.10*
Instrumental Motivations	44.20	7.51	42.35	5.71	45.58	5.42	2.65
Narcissistic Motivations	37.40	8.13	40.50	7.91	41.58	7.42	3.07*
Career Role Salience	30.13	6.27	28.55	6.21	23.20	5.20	1.45
Marital Role Salience	28.55	4.96	29.50	4.30	29.30	5.06	0.44
Parental Role Salience	23.20	5.48	26.88	3.38	27.78	5.25	10.06**
Career Role Involvement	28.53	5.23	27.78	4.43	29.53	4.07	1.45
Marital Role Involvement	27.30	3.88	26.73	5.97	28.10	4.17	0.84
Parental Role Involvement	29.70	5.37	28.88	7.05	31.43	5.76	1.82

MANOVA $F_{44,192} = 2.52, p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$

Father's Inclusion Behavior was the third significant difference among groups on the LIPHE ($p \leq .01$). This scale measures the amount of paternal attention perceived as having been obtained during childhood. As with the previous variable, childless women were distinguished from both the mothers and postponing females with no difference between the latter two groups. Mothers and postponing women tended to perceive significantly less parental attention than did the childless females (Table D12).

The final variable assessed to be significant among groups was the Mother's Inclusion Behavior Scale ($p \leq .0002$). The amount of maternal attention believed as having been received during childhood is measured by this scale. Childless women perceived significantly more maternal attention than did mothers and women postponing childbearing (Table D13).

No significant differences were noted among the groups on the remaining eight scales of the LIPHE: Father's Inclusion Feelings ($p \leq .15$), Mother's Inclusion Feelings ($p \leq .59$), Mother's Control Behavior ($p \leq .08$), Father's Control Feelings ($p \leq .17$), Mother's Control Feelings ($p \leq .48$), Father's Affection ($p \leq .57$), Mother's Affection ($p \leq .15$) or Mother's Parental Disapproval ($p \leq .12$).

Motivations Toward Parenthood

Four subscales of the Child Study Inventory were utilized to compare the three subject groups on attitudes toward parenthood and childbearing.

HO₂ There is no significant difference among the three groups of women in terms of their general attitudes toward childbearing and parenthood as measured by Rabin's Child Study Inventory.

A multivariate analysis of variance was used in assessing significant differences in response to Rabin's Child Study Inventory. With the alpha

level set at .05, significant differences among the three groups were found on three of the four subscales. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. Analyses of the MANOVA for each of the scales of the Child Study Inventory may be found in Appendix D, Tables 14-17.

The first significant differences among groups on the Child Study Inventory was on the Altruistic Scale. This factor measures the unselfish, emotionally giving motivation for having children. Mothers and women postponing childbearing tended to be more affectionate towards children than childless women ($p \leq .01$). No significant difference in scores on this scale were detected between postponing women and mothers (Table D14).

Scores on the Fatalistic Scale revealed significant differences between mothers and women postponing childbearing at the .02 level. Postponing women tended to view childbearing as being a part of human destiny more so than did mothers. No significant differences were noted in scores on this scale of childless women and postponing females or mothers (Table D15).

The final significant difference among groups on the Child Study Inventory was found in the Narcissistic Scale ($p \leq .05$). The Narcissistic Scale measures the expectation that the child will reflect glory upon the parent. The childless females sampled expected children to reflect glory on the parent more so than did women who were already mothers. No significant differences were found between women postponing childbearing and mothers or childless females on this scale (Table D16).

So significant differences were assessed for the Instrumental Scale of the Child Study Inventory ($p \leq .07$) (Table D17).

Career, Marital and Familial Role Salience and Involvement

Literature reports childless women as being more involved with and receiving more satisfaction from their marriage and career. The multiple one-way analysis of variance was used to assess differences among groups on the three role salience scales and the three role involvement scales.

HO₃ There is no significant difference among the three groups of women in terms of the degree of marital, career and familial role salience and involvement as measured by the Life Role Inventory.

A multivariate analysis of variance was used in assessing significant differences among groups on the Life Role Inventory. Significant differences were found on one of the six subscales. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Analyses of the MANOVA for each of the scales of the Life Roles Inventory may be located in Appendix D, Tables 18-23.

The Parental Role Salience Scale was found to indicate significant differences among the three groups. Women postponing childbearing and mothers perceived significantly more fulfillment out of the role of mother than did those who had decided against childbearing ($p \leq .0001$). No differences in scores on this scale were noted between mothers and postponing females (Table D20).

No significant differences were found among the three subject groups on Career Role Salience ($p \leq .24$), Marital Role Salience ($p \leq .65$), Career Role Involvement ($p \leq .24$), Marital Role Involvement ($p \leq .43$) or Parental Role Involvement ($p \leq .17$).

Relationship Among Variables Across Groups

A multiple discriminant function analysis was conducted to determine the interaction between variables across groups. Such an analysis was

deemed necessary to determine the relative importance of each of the variables in predicting membership in these three groups.

HO₄ There is no significant difference among the three groups of parent-child relationship perceptions, attitudes toward parenthood and career, marital and familial role salience or involvement.

Two distinct functions emerged from the discriminant analysis. Function 1 distinguished between childless women and mothers at the .00001 level and Function 2 discriminated between women postponing childbearing and mothers at the .0091 level of significance (Table 2). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. These functions were determined by the group centroids, defined as the means of the discriminant function scores for each group (Pedhazur, 1982).

In analyzing the significant interactions of the twenty-two variables among groups by functions, Function 1 indicates five significant interactions. Father's Control Behavior, Father's Inclusion Behavior, Mother's Inclusion Behavior, Altruistic Motivations and Parental Role Salience discriminate between mothers and childless women. Women postponing childbearing and mothers were separated in Function 2 by two variables, Fatalistic and Narcissistic Motivations (Table 3).

A discriminant analysis demonstrated that utilizing all twenty-two variables provided an overall predictive value of seventy percent in correctly assessing whether subjects were voluntarily childless, postponing childbearing or mothers. Table 4 shows that child subjects were correctly identified by their test scores in thirty out of forty cases for a seventy-five percent accuracy rating. Both mothers and women postponing childbearing were correctly classified by their test scores in twenty-seven out of forty subjects, providing 67.5% accuracy.

TABLE 2
CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS

<u>Function</u>	<u>Percent of Variance</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>	<u>Canonical Correlation</u>	<u>After Function</u>	<u>Wilk's Lambda</u>	<u>Chi Square</u>	<u>d. f.</u>	<u>Significance</u>
1	61.88	61.88	0.6480106	0	0.401176	97.27	44	0.0000
2	38.12	100.00	0.5553513	1	0.691585	39.27	21	0.0091

TABLE 3
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DEPENDENT AND CANONICAL VARIABLES

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>FUNCTION 1</u>	<u>FUNCTION 2</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	-0.12956	0.21799
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	-0.10759	-0.03638
Father's Control Behavior	-0.31875*	0.14282
Mother's Control Behavior	-0.19120	0.19727
Father's Control Feelings	-0.20055	0.06312
Mother's Control Feelings	-0.02066	-0.16707
Father's Affection	-0.06740	0.11882
Mother's Affection	-0.21416	-0.02805
Father's Parental Disapproval	-0.27499	-0.04029
Mother's Parental Disapproval	-0.22309	-0.04240
Father's Inclusion Behavior	-0.32941*	0.02431
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	-0.43823*	-0.22215
Altruistic Motivations	0.33574*	-0.00453
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.05796	-0.38955*
Instrumental Motivations	-0.01223	-0.28955
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.26308	0.31847*
Career Role Salience	0.12559	0.17328
Marital Role Salience	-0.09886	-0.03041
Parental Role Salience	-0.47999*	0.10716
Career Role Involvement	-0.02187	0.23453
Marital Role Involvement	-0.01829	0.17802
Parental Role Involvement	-0.04867	0.25678

*Coefficients $\geq .30$ considered to be significant

TABLE 4
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

<u>ACTUAL GROUP</u>	<u>NUMBER OF CASES</u>	<u>CHILDLESS</u>	<u>POSTPONERS</u>	<u>MOTHERS</u>
Childless	40	30 75.0%	4 10.0%	6 15.0%
Postponers	40	4 10.0%	27 67.5%	9 22.5%
Mothers	40	7 17.5%	6 15.0%	27 67.5%

Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 70.00%

The most predictive variables of childbearing determined by the discriminant analysis were the Father's Control Behavior, Father's Inclusion Behavior, Mother's Inclusion Behavior, Altruistic Motivations and Parental Role Salience. The Father's Parental Disapproval and the Narcissistic Motivations scales were not found to be significant using the discriminant function although they had been assessed as significant utilizing the multiple one-way analysis of variance. Variables to which the analysis of variance attributed significance at the .05 level were not found to be significant utilizing the discriminant function. The individual scales of the LIPHE, Child Study Inventory and Life Roles Inventory are analyzed utilizing a discriminant analysis in Appendix E, Tables 1-22.

In examining the interactions between specific variables, there were six major significant trends among groups. The first interaction demonstrated that, for this sample, the more positive the relationship with their father, the more involved the women perceived themselves as being in their careers. More specifically, Career Role Involvement interacted significantly with the Father's Inclusion Feelings ($p \leq .02$), Father's Control Feelings ($p \leq .02$) and Father's Affection Scales ($p \leq .01$). Childless females reported more satisfaction in their relationships with their own fathers as well as perceiving greater salience in their careers as compared with women postponing childbearing.

Similar to the first major interaction, Career Role Salience was significantly interactive with the Mother's Inclusion Feelings Scale ($p \leq .01$). The greater the maternal attention perceived during childhood, the greater the adult salience experienced in her career. Women

postponing childbearing perceived less maternal inclusion as well as less career salience as compared with mothers and childless women.

The third interaction was that the greater the parental constraint and maternal disapproval perceived in their own childhood, the greater the fulfillment perceived in parenthood. Parental Role Salience demonstrated significant interaction with Father's Control Behavior ($p \leq .04$) and Mother's Parental Disapproval ($p \leq .05$). Mothers reported greater parental constraint and disapproval while simultaneously reporting more parental role salience as compared with childless women.

The interaction of the parental role salience and the motivations for childbearing comprises the fourth significant interaction. The greater the parental role salience perceived, the more altruistic were the motivations for childbearing ($p \leq .004$) while simultaneously fewer narcissistic causes were reported ($p \leq .05$). Mothers perceived greater parental role salience accompanied by altruistic motivations for childbearing while childless women reported less parental role salience and greater narcissistic motivations.

The fifth major interaction indicated that women who perceived children as a "means to an end" tended to assume less responsibility within their own marriages. Interaction was significant at the .05 level between the Instrumental Motivation Scale and the Marital Role Involvement Scale. Women postponing childbearing tended to perceive instrumental causes for parenthood while at the same time reporting less marital responsibility as compared with childless females and mothers.

The final major interaction was that the greater the career role salience and involvement, the greater the marital role salience and involvement. Career Role Salience interacted significantly with Marital

Role Salience ($p \leq .004$), Career Role Involvement ($p \leq .000$) and Marital Role Involvement ($p \leq .000$). Mothers and childless women were more involved and satisfied with their marriages and careers as compared with women postponing childbearing.

CHAPTER V DISCUSSION

This study investigated the combined influence of three factors on women's decision-making regarding childbearing. These factors were women's perceptions of their early child-parent relationship, their motivations for parenthood, and the salience they attributed to career, marital and familial roles. Using both multiple one-way analysis of variance and discriminant function analysis procedures, responses on three attitudinal measures assessing these factors were examined for three distinctive groups of women graduate students: mothers, women postponing childbearing and voluntarily childless females.

Examining the subjects' responses by a multiple one-way analysis of variance revealed significant differences among groups on four of the eight parent-child relationship dimensions as measured by the Life Interpersonal History Enquiry. These differences were Father's Control Behavior, Father's Parental Disapproval, Father's Inclusion Behavior and Mother's Inclusion Behavior. Three of the four scales measuring motivations for parenting via the Child Study Inventory indicated significant differences among groups. The differences were found in the Altruistic, Fatalistic and Narcissistic Scales. In examining the women's life roles, only one of the six scales of the Life Role Inventory, that of Parental Role Salience, was assessed to be significant among the three groups.

In assessing the interaction among groups by utilizing a discriminant function analysis, significant differences were found. Function 1 differentiated between childless women and mothers at the .00001 level of significance. The factors distinguishing the two subject groups were Father's Control Behavior, Father's Inclusion Behavior, Mother's Inclusion Behavior, Altruistic Motivations for Parenthood and Parental Role Salience. A second function significantly differentiated women postponing childbearing from mothers at the .0091 level of significance.

Discussion and Conclusions

Differences across the three groups in terms of perceptions of early parent-child relationships stand in marked contrast to previous research. Prior studies suggested that childless women emerged from families that displayed low levels of warmth, high levels of conflict, dissatisfaction with children, instability and inequality (Bram, 1975; Frankel, 1976; Harper, 1980; Houseknecht, 1977; Rainwater, 1963).

In examining possible causes for the disparity between the results of this study and previous research, three potential explanations may be noted. First, past research has tended to focus on examining the mother-daughter relationship. The father-daughter has largely been ignored. Since three of the four significant differences in parent-child perceptions centered around the father-daughter relationship, this variable needs further examination.

A second possible explanation for the disparity between results from previous research and the results of the present study is the method of data collection. Prior research results were based on interviews as opposed to written questionnaires. Interviews, by nature, tend to be

more subjective in their interpretation than the numerical scores provided by a questionnaire. Therefore, it may be possible that a small percentage of previous research may have been biased by the interviewer's personal perception.

A final explanation pertaining to the differing results is the method of subject selection. In previous research studies, subjects were classified either as "mothers" or "childless." Education, age and socioeconomic status were not controlled. The present study examined a homogeneous subject pool. All subjects were married graduate women students and were between the ages of twenty-five and forty. Consequently, many variables which may have confounded the results of other studies were controlled in the present study.

Whatever the reasons for the disparity between previous research and the present study, the childless subjects sampled in this research reported perceiving a greater degree of paternal inclusion and approval as well as more paternal and maternal attention than did subjects who were postponing childbearing and mothers.

Clear differences were also noted among the three groups of women in terms of their assessed motivations for parenthood. Women who were mothers and postponers tended to report a greater motivation to express affection and concern to children than did childless women as indicated by the Altruistic Motivation Scale.

A further difference in motivations for parenthood noted in the results of the Child Study Inventory indicated that childless women, in contrast to the mothers sampled, tended to perceive people as having children in order to reflect glory on the parent as indicated by the

Narcissistic Motivation Scale. In other words, childless women tended to believe that children reflect the biological, physical and psychological adequacy of the parent.

In examining the differences between groups in regards to the importance of career, marital and parental role salience, it was evident that mothers and women postponing childbearing ascribed significantly more value than did voluntarily childless women to fulfillment in the role of parent.

While previous research repeatedly indicates that childless marriages tend to more satisfying than parental marriage (Fawcett, 1972; Feldman, 1979; Feldman, 1981; Houseknecht, 1979), the results of the present study showed no significant differences between the three groups on marital role salience. The discrepancy in results may again be attributable to the subject population. As all subjects were graduate students, the marriages sampled may not be typical marriages. A woman who fulfills the roles of wife, mother and student may be viewed as having her time heavily committed. Therefore, it may be possible that in such a marriage the husband may have more demands placed on him for childcare and housework so that the wife may have time for her studies. Such sharing of responsibilities may necessitate increased marital communication which may in turn improve marital satisfaction.

Contrary to the literature, the three groups did not differ in career involvement or salience. A possible reason for this contradiction may be the subject pool used in the present study as compared with other research. As all subjects were attending graduate school, it appears that such pursuit of higher education may indicate an importance of

furthering her career. Therefore, it may be postulated that career commitment may have appeared evident in previous research as confounding variables rather than a determining variable.

In reviewing the results of the MANOVA, some general postulations may be made for the causes of the differences across groups. Childless women appear to have developed a closer relationship with their fathers than mothers or women postponing childbearing. Therefore, one may theorize that childless women have a difficult time transferring their identification with their father to identifying with motherhood (Harper, 1980). As a result of positive paternal attention being given for the childless females' independence and individuality, this group of women may value these personal characteristics more so than do the remaining two groups. Since children may restrict her independence, voluntarily childless women might decline the opportunity of having children. One may speculate that childless females would not perceive themselves as being adequately compensated for the lack of freedom, financial constraint, emotional and physical demands as well as the marital strain by the advent of children. Another possible result of having a close paternal relationship without an equally close maternal interaction is that childless women may tend to seek interactions during adulthood with their husbands similar in nature to those received from their fathers earlier in their lives. As a possible consequence, childless women might be reluctant to share their spouse's attention with a child. Having received attention from both their fathers as well as their spouses, it may be difficult for the childless females to assume the role of care-giver as opposed to care-receiver. Due to their possible

lack of comfort with being altruistic, the childless females may tend to reject parenthood. Having possibly been the center of male attention for most if not all of their lives, the childless females may also be somewhat more narcissistic as confirmed by the Narcissistic Motivation Scale. The combination of the tendency towards narcissism and the discomfort with altruism may further prohibit the childless females from having children.

Women postponing childbearing appeared, by discriminant analysis, not to be significantly different from childless women. However, by analyzing individual scores, postponing women do not report themselves as having had as close a relationship with their fathers. Women postponing childbearing appear to be significantly different from mothers by perceiving childbearing as "preordained" and a natural aspect of being an adult. One wonders if women postponing parenthood view their choice of childbearing as merely a question of when to have children rather than whether to have children. Mothers, on the other hand, may have previously shifted their views away from a fatalistic perception regarding having children and now experience an altruistic satisfaction as a result of parenthood. A longitudinal study focusing on motivations for parenthood would be needed to assess if a less fatalistic perception might develop from experiencing motherhood and viewing children altruistically.

The mothers studied tended to have less positive perceptions of their childhood relationship with their own parents. In contrast to their own experiences, mothers were more favorable in their perceptions of the salience received from motherhood as compared with childless women and

women postponing childbearing. The mothers sampled also appeared to be heavily committed, reporting greater involvement with their careers and marriages, in addition to being mothers, than did the women postponing childbearing. In summary, one may speculate that the mothers studied reported extensive involvement with their various roles yet perceived themselves as experiencing more satisfaction out of their roles of career, marriage and family as compared with women postponing childbearing.

Interaction Between Variables

Six major interactions between variables differentiated between childless women, females postponing childbearing and mothers. The interactions were the father-child relationship interacting with career involvement; the mother-child relationship correlating with career involvement; the parent-child relationship correlating with the perceived satisfaction of motherhood; the motivations for childbearing reacting with the perceived fulfillment of motherhood; the responsibility assumed within the marriage with the reported reasons for childbearing; and the interaction of career involvement and satisfaction with the marriage.

The first two significant interactions involve the correlation between the parent-child relationship and career-role salience. By definition of the scales of the LIPHE, one might speculate that women who were more satisfied with their paternal attention, approval and love and were encouraged by their fathers to be autonomous tended to perceive themselves as assuming more responsibility in their careers. Fulfillment within their careers correlated positively with the amount of maternal attention received as a child. In the present study, childless women

and mothers tended to assume more responsibility and perceived themselves as being more satisfied in their career than did women who were postponing childbearing. Childless females perceived obtaining greater overall satisfaction in childhood than did mothers or postponers. It may therefore be possible that there is an overall interaction between obtaining positive paternal attention, approval and love, by scale definition, in relation to the tendency to consider remaining childless. One possible explanation for this interaction may be that, as previously postulated, in perceiving significantly more paternal attention, approval, love and encouragement to be autonomous, by the LIPHE scale definition, that identification may be established to a stronger degree with the father than would be the case with less paternal positive attention. As a stronger paternal identification may possible develop, the women may relate more closely to the father's role, i.e. career, as compared with the role of mother. Such identification may be theorized to encourage the women to perceive themselves as assuming increasing responsibility within their careers as well as seeking fulfillment from that role. It may be speculated that the greater the satisfaction in and involvement with their careers, the less tendency there may be to pursue satisfaction out of the role of mother.

The second primary interaction was between the parent-child relationship and the satisfaction with motherhood. The greater the paternal constraint of childhood independence and the more maternal dissatisfaction with her daughter was reported as being experienced, the greater the fulfillment the females projected into the role of mother. It may be postulated that women, who appear by scale definition to have been

controlled by paternal dominance and maternal dissatisfaction as children, perceive the role of parent as being one of control. From the test results, it appears that such women were not allowed, possibly due to paternal restrictions, to develop independence and were therefore familiar primarily with familial roles. As a result, it may be speculated that as the dominated child attained adulthood, she may have assumed the role of wife and mother with the accompanying parental control she may have coveted during childhood. Consequently, a child who was protected and controlled may be postulated to grow into an adult who may prize the role of mother. Test results confirm that mothers tended to be more protected during childhood, perceived maternal dissatisfaction with herself as well as tending to view the role of mother with satisfaction.

Satisfaction with the role of mother significantly interacted with the motivations for childbearing. The greater the perceived parental salience, the more altruistic reasons for childbearing the women reported while simultaneously reporting fewer narcissistic causes. It may be speculated that such altruistic motivations would tend to set up a more positive parent-child relationship which would in turn allow the maternal role to be more satisfying. It may further be postulated that narcissistic motivations for having children may create dissatisfaction with the role of mother as narcissistic needs may not be met through having children, creating disillusionment and unfulfillment for the women. Therefore, the motivations for childbearing may tend to influence the females' satisfaction with motherhood.

Marital involvement also interacted significantly with the perceived motivations for having children. It appears that the greater the tendency to view children as a means to an end, as indicated by the Instrumental Motivations Scale, the less responsibility the women tended to be willing to assume in their marriages. Women who were postponing childbearing tended to place more emphasis on perceiving a child as being instrumental and appeared to report experiencing less marital involvement as compared with mothers. Such a perception of childbearing may be theorized to depict a female who tended to be more interested in the results of having children rather than being interested in the children themselves. Secondly, by being unwilling to assume the marital involvement taken on by mothers and childless women, it may be questioned if postponing women may be more interested in what they may get out of the marital relationship as opposed to what they may put in it. Therefore, one may speculate that females postponing childbearing not only are less involved and satisfied in their careers as previously postulated, but are also less involved in their marriages and may not be satisfied within the role of mother in view of their perceived motivations for childbearing.

To add greater credence to the previous possibilities, the final major interaction of variables was between career and marital roles. The more career salience women experienced, the greater the marital salience women tended to perceive as well as the increased involvement assessed themselves as assuming in both of these roles. As previously indicated, the results of the present study evidenced that mothers and childless women were significantly more fulfilled by and perceived

themselves as being more involved in both marriage and career as compared with women postponing childbearing. One speculation for the difference between groups may be that postponing women may find themselves in limbo. Believing they are planning children in the future, they may perceive themselves as being unwilling to dedicate themselves to a career as they may see that route as being short-lived. Therefore, it may be postulated that they refrain from becoming involved in a career and consequently receive little salience in return. However, this does not account for the female who postponed childbearing to establish a career which might appear common in a subject pool of graduate students. Therefore, further research would be advised to examine the priorities and goals of women postponing childbearing.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this study stand in marked contrast to the results of previous research. The present study utilized a homogeneous subject pool, thus many confounding variables were controlled. Further research needs to be conducted utilizing homogeneous groups controlling various factors to determine if these same three sets of variables significantly discriminate among women of different socioeconomic levels, and at different life and career stages.

Limited research is available on women who are postponing childbearing. Results from this study suggest that postponers are generally more closely related in their attitudes to voluntarily childless women than to mothers. However, little is known concerning this group of women and further study is needed to clarify the influential factors affecting their attitudes.

In addition, future research needs to be of a longitudinal research design in order to explore the decision-making process of childbearing over time. It has not been ascertained if the differences between mothers, postponers and childless women determine their childbearing decision or if their decision creates their differences. For example, do a woman's priorities between career, marriage and parenthood determine her childbearing decision or do her priorities change as a result of her parenting choice? Future studies need to clarify and attempt to answer this question.

Summary and Conclusions

In summary, this study found that women who decided not to have children tended to describe their paternal relationships as characterized by encouragement, approval and positive attention. These perceptions differed markedly from women who were postponing childbearing or who were already mothers. Secondly, postponing women and mothers tended to view children from a more altruistic perception than did females planning to remain childless. In contrast, childless women tended to consider children as meeting narcissistic needs more than did mothers or postponing women. Lastly, mothers and postponing women viewed the parental role as providing more personal fulfillment than did voluntarily childless women. In assessing the interaction of factors, childless women could be distinguished from mothers by the paternal encouragement, parental attention, altruistic motivations for parenthood as well as the perceived parental role salience. Mothers could be distinguished from women postponing childbearing by their narcissistic and fatalistic motivations for parenthood.

Therefore, in counseling women who are deciding whether to have children, it would be beneficial to assess the woman in terms of her relationship with her parents, her perceived motivations for child-bearing and her perceived salience out of the roles of career, marriage and parenthood.

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A
COVER LETTER

346 Miller Ave.
Weirton, W. Va. 26062

July 17, 1982

Dear


Attitudes toward parenthood have altered significantly in the last decade with a trend towards couples planning smaller families. As a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education at the University of Florida, specializing in Marriage and Family Therapy, I am devoting my dissertation, under the direction of Dr. E.S. Amatea, to further researching and understanding these parenting trends.

I would appreciate your cooperation in being a subject in this dissertation study by responding to the enclosed questionnaires. The average time for others thus far has ranged from twenty to thirty minutes. All questionnaires are accompanied by instructions. In regards to the LIPHE (blue form) pertaining to parental relationships, if one of your parents was absent during your childhood, please respond with whomever you perceived as your mother or father figure during that stage in your life. All responses are confidential.

Also enclosed is an addressed and stamped envelope with which to return the completed questionnaires. Please return the completed forms to me by August 6.

Thank you for your cooperation and time in providing your perceptions for this parenting study. If you wish to be informed on the overall results of the research, please place your name and address on a separate piece of paper. Results will be available by the end of October.

Sincerely,


Janet Reading, Ed.S.

Ellen S. Amatea, Ph.D.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1) Age: _____
- 2) Race: _____
- 3) How long have you been married to your husband? _____ years.
Is this your first marriage? Yes: _____ No: _____
- 4) Do you have children? Yes: _____ No: _____
Did you plan to have children? Yes: _____ No: _____
- If you do not have children, do you intend to have them in the future?
Yes: _____ No: _____
- If you do not intend to have children, is this by choice or due to physiological circumstances? Choice: _____ Circumstances: _____

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C
LETTER OF CONSENT

I hereby consent to participate as a subject in the dissertation research of Janet Reading. It is my understanding that my responses will not be used for any other purpose and that all responses will be anonymous. Any publication of the research results will not include my name or any identifying characteristics.

Date: _____ Name: _____

Researcher: Janet Reading

APPENDIX D

TABLE D1

MULTIVARIATE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE

<u>TEST NAME</u>	<u>VALUE</u>	<u>APPROXIMATE F</u>	<u>HYPOTHEZIZED d.f.</u>	<u>ERROR d.f.</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT F</u>
Wilks Lambda	0.40	2.52576	44.00	192.00	0.000

TABLE D2
ANOVA - FATHER'S INCLUSION FEELINGS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	919.80	459.90	1.951	0.1468
Within Group	117	27585.52	235.77		
Total	119	28505.33			
Subset 1					
Group		Childless	Postponers	Mothers	
Mean		13.58	14.18	19.73	

TABLE D3
ANOVA - MOTHER'S INCLUSION FEELINGS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	214.02	107.01	0.525	0.5931
Within Group	117	23861.85	203.95		
Total	119	24075.87			
Subset 1					
Group					
Mean					
		Childless	Mothers		Postponers
		10.03	12.43		13.15

TABLE D4
ANOVA - FATHER'S CONTROL BEHAVIOR

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Groups	2	1325.45	662.72	4.835	0.0096
Within Groups	117	16037.75	137.07		
Total	119	17363.20			

<u>Subset 1</u>		
Group	Childless	Postponers
Mean	11.43	16.50
<u>Subset 2</u>		
Group	Postponers	Mothers
Mean	16.50	19.47

TABLE D5
ANOVA - MOTHER'S CONTROL BEHAVIOR

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	857.15	428.58	2.563	0.0814
Within Group	117	19561.78	167.19		
Total	119	20418.93			

<u>Subset 1</u>		
Group	Childless	Mothers
Mean	14.38	20.80
	Postponers	
	16.50	

TABLE D6
ANOVA - FATHER'S CONTROL FEELINGS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	932.92	466.46	1.807	0.1687
Within Group	117	30200.55	258.12		
Total	119	31133.47			

<u>Subset 1</u>			
Group	Childless	Postponers	Mothers
Mean	14.98	19.73	21.60

TABLE D7
ANOVA - MOTHER'S CONTROL FEELINGS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	425.02	212.51	0.746	0.4764
Within Group	117	33316.45	284.76		
Total	119	33741.47			
Subset 1					
Group					
Mean					
Mothers		16.73	Childless		
			18.23		
			Postponers		
			21.25		

TABLE D8
ANOVA - FATHER'S AFFECTION

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Groups	2	34.72	172.36	0.561	0.5723
Within Groups	117	35963.28	307.38		
Total	119	36307.99			
<u>Subset 1</u>					
Group		Childless	Postponers	Mothers	
Mean		16.43	16.70	20.15	

TABLE D9
ANOVA - MOTHER'S AFFECTION

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	916.65	458.33	1.963	0.1451
Within Group	117	27319.05	233.50		
Total	119	28235.70			
Subset 1					
Group					
Mean					
Childless		9.65			
Mothers		15.28			
Postponers		15.73			

TABLE D10
ANOVA - FATHER'S PARENTAL DISAPPROVAL

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d. f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Groups	2	811.67	405.83	3.245	0.425
Within Groups	117	14634.30	125.07		
Total	119	15445.97			
Subset 1					
Group	Childless				
Mean	10.65				
Subset 2					
Group	Mothers				
Mean	15.90				
	Postponers				
	16.40				

TABLE D11
ANOVA - MOTHER'S PARENTAL DISAPPROVAL

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	440.22	220.11	2.154	0.1205
Within Group	117	11953.38	102.17		
Total	119	12393.59			
Subset 1					
Group					
Mean					
		Childless	Mothers	Postponers	
		13.00	16.78	17.30	

TABLE D12
ANOVA - FATHER'S INCLUSION BEHAVIOR

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Groups	2	2396.12	1198.06	4.611	0.0118
Within Groups	117	30401.85	259.84		
Total	119	32797.97			

<u>Subset 1</u>	
Group	Childless
Mean	13.23
<u>Subset 2</u>	
Group	Postponers
Mean	22.15
	Mothers
	23.18

TABLE D13
ANOVA - MOTHER'S INCLUSION BEHAVIOR

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Groups	2	3506.45	1753.23	9.420	0.0002
Within Groups	117	21775.25	186.11		
Total	119	25281.70			

<u>Subset 1</u>	
Group	Childless
Mean	9.75
<u>Subset 2</u>	
Group	Mothers
Mean	18.33
	Postponers
	22.78

TABLE DL4
ANOVA - ALTRUISTIC MOTIVATIONS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d. f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Groups	2	577.85	288.93	4.77	0.0102
Within Groups	117	7080.95	60.52		
Total	119	7658.80			
Subset 1					
Group Means		Mothers 19.93	Postponers 20.18		
Subset 2					
Group Means		Childless 24.70			

TABLE D15
ANOVA - FATALISTIC MOTIVATIONS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	416.47	208.23	4.101	0.0190
Within Groups	117	5940.53	50.77		
Total	119	6356.99			
Subset 1					
Group		Mothers	Childless		
Means		32.48	33.83		
Subset 2					
Group		Postponers	Childless		
Means		36.93	33.83		

TABLE D16
ANOVA - NARCISSISTIC MOTIVATIONS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Groups	2	375.95	187.98	3.070	0.0502
Within Groups	117	7163.38	61.23		
Total	119	7539.33			
<u>Subset 1</u>					
Group		Childless	Postponers		
Mean		37.40	40.50		
<u>Subset 2</u>					
Group		Postponers	Mothers		
Mean		40.50	41.58		

TABLE D17
ANOVA - INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATIONS

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	209.52	104.76	2.652	0.0747
Within Group	117	4621.28	39.50		
Total	119	4830.79			
<u>Subset 1</u>					
Group		Postponers	Childless	Mothers	
Mean		42.35	44.20	45.58	

TABLE D18
ANOVA - CAREER ROLE SALIENCE

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	101.62	50.81	1.451	0.2385
Within Group	117	4096.18	35.01		
Total	119	4197.79			
	<u>Subset 1</u>				
	Group				
	Mean				
	Postponers	27.95	Mothers	29.55	Childless
					30.13

TABLE D19
ANOVA - MARITAL ROLE SALIENCE

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d. f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	20.07	10.03	0.438	0.6464
Within Group	117	2680.30	22.91		
Total	119	2700.37			
Subset 1					
Group		Childless	Mothers		Postponers
Mean		28.55	29.30		29.50

TABLE #20
ANOVA - PARENTAL ROLE SALIENCE

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	462.82	231.41	10.056	0.0001
Within Groups	117	2692.35	23.01		
Total	119	3155.17			
Subset 1					
Group		Childless			
Mean		23.20			
Subset 2					
Group		Postponers	Mothers		
Mean		26.67	27.78		

TABLE D21
ANOVA - CAREER ROLE INVOLVEMENT

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	61.67	30.83	1.455	0.2375
Within Group	117	2478.93	21.19		
Total	119	2540.59			
<u>Subset 1</u>					
Group					
Mean					
Postponers		27.78			
Childless		28.53			
Mothers		29.53			

TABLE D22
ANOVA - MARITAL ROLE INVOLVEMENT

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	38.15	19.07	0.841	0.4339
Within Group	117	2653.98	22.68		
Total	119	2692.12			
<u>Subset 1</u>					
Group					
Mean					
		Postponers	Childless	Mothers	
		26.73	27.30	28.10	

TABLE D23
ANOVA - PARENTAL ROLE INVOLVEMENT

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>d.f.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARES</u>	<u>F-RATIO</u>	<u>F-PROBABILITY</u>
Between Group	2	135.45	67.73	1.821	0.1665
Within Group	117	4352.55	37.20		
Total	119	4488.00			
<u>Subset 1</u>					
Group					
Mean					
		Postponers	Childless	Mothers	
		28.88	29.70	31.43	

APPENDIX E

TABLE E1
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - FATHER'S INCLUSION FEELINGS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.35	0.000 **
Father's Control Behavior	0.50	0.000 **
Mother's Control Behavior	0.30	0.000 **
Father's Control Feelings	0.62	0.000 **
Mother's Control Feelings	0.28	0.001 **
Father's Affection	0.82	0.000 **
Mother's Affection	0.27	0.002 **
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.38	0.000 **
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.14	0.064
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.70	0.000 **
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.38	0.000 **
Altruistic Motivations	0.14	0.067
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.15	0.048 *
Instrumental Motivations	0.09	0.177
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.09	0.177
Career Role Salience	-0.04	0.342
Marital Role Salience	0.01	0.479
Parental Role Salience	0.02	0.417
Career Role Involvement	0.18	0.024 *
Marital Role Involvement	0.05	0.285
Parental Role Involvement	0.05	0.303

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E2
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MOTHER'S INCLUSION FEELINGS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.35	0.000 **
Father's Control Behavior	0.39	0.000 **
Mother's Control Behavior	0.53	0.000 **
Father's Control Feelings	0.47	0.000 **
Mother's Control Feelings	0.63	0.000 **
Father's Affection	0.26	0.002 **
Mother's Affection	0.81	0.000 **
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.44	0.000 **
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.52	0.000 **
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.22	0.007 **
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.65	0.000 **
Altruistic Motivations	-0.06	0.257
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.11	0.106
Instrumental Motivations	0.05	0.287
Narcissistic Motivations	0.10	0.129
Career Role Salience	-0.22	0.008 **
Marital Role Salience	0.02	0.426
Parental Role Salience	0.10	0.140
Career Role Involvement	-0.07	0.221
Marital Role Involvement	-0.09	0.164
Parental Role Involvement	-0.05	0.309

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E3
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - FATHER'S CONTROL BEHAVIOR

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.50	0.000 **
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.39	0.000 **
Mother's Control Behavior	0.60	0.000 **
Father's Control Feelings	0.76	0.000 **
Mother's Control Feelings	0.37	0.000 **
Father's Affection	0.34	0.000 **
Mother's Affection	0.35	0.000 **
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.64	0.000 **
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.48	0.000 **
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.19	0.017 *
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.39	0.000 **
Altruistic Motivations	-0.01	0.474
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.02	0.402
Instrumental Motivations	0.07	0.216
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.05	0.289
Career Role Salience	-0.13	0.081
Marital Role Salience	-0.04	0.334
Parental Role Salience	0.16	0.037 *
Career Role Involvement	0.10	0.136
Marital Role Involvement	0.01	0.440
Parental Role Involvement	-0.10	0.150

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E4
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MOTHER'S CONTROL BEHAVIOR

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.30	0.000**
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.53	0.000**
Father's Control Behavior	0.60	0.000**
Father's Control Feelings	0.55	0.000**
Mother's Control Feelings	0.73	0.000**
Father's Affection	0.23	0.006**
Mother's Affection	0.61	0.000**
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.54	0.000**
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.60 1	0.000**
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.17	0.030*
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.43	0.000**
Altruistic Motivations	-0.01	0.457
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.03	0.360
Instrumental Motivations	-0.05	0.298
Narcissistic Motivations	0.06	0.273
Career Role Salience	-0.04	0.326
Marital Role Salience	0.03	0.38‡
Parental Role Salience	0.09	0.169
Career Role Involvement	0.06	0.268
Marital Role Involvement	0.09	0.166
Parental Role Involvement	0.06	0.270

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E5
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - FATHER'S CONTROL FEELINGS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.62	0.000**
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.47	0.000**
Father's Control Behavior	0.76	0.000**
Mother's Control Behavior	0.55	0.000**
Mother's Control Feelings	0.56	0.000**
Father's Affection	0.53	0.000**
Mother's Affection	0.41	0.000**
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.55	0.000**
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.41	0.000**
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.25	0.003**
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.40	0.000**
Altruistic Motivations	0.02	0.435
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.08	0.179
Instrumental Motivations	0.10	0.144
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.04	0.329
Career Role Salience	-0.03	0.385
Marital Role Salience	0.02	0.400
Parental Role Salience	0.07	0.235
Career Role Involvement	0.20	0.015*
Marital Role Involvement	0.04	0.327
Parental Role Involvement	-0.05	0.292

**p \leq .01

* p \leq .05

TABLE E6
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MOTHER'S CONTROL FEELINGS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.28	0.000 **
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.63	0.000 **
Father's Control Behavior	0.37	0.000 **
Mother's Control Behavior	0.73	0.000 **
Father's Control Feelings	0.56	0.000 **
Father's Affection	0.27	0.001 **
Mother's Affection	0.65	0.000 **
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.39	0.000 **
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.54	0.000 **
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.17	0.031 *
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.48	0.000 **
Altruistic Motivations	-0.01	0.478
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.01	0.471
Instrumental Motivations	-0.02	0.401
Narcissistic Motivations	0.03	0.389
Career Role Salience	-0.05	0.306
Marital Role Salience	0.02	0.402
Parental Role Salience	0.01	0.453
Career Role Involvement	0.06	0.245
Marital Role Involvement	0.01	0.438
Parental Role Involvement	-0.04	0.351

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E7
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - FATHER'S AFFECTION

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.82	0.000 **
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.26	0.002 **
Father's Control Behavior	0.34	0.000 **
Mother's Control Behavior	0.23	0.000 **
Father's Control Feelings	0.53	0.000 **
Mother's Control Feelings	0.27	0.001 **
Mother's Affection	0.26	0.002 **
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.36	0.000 **
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.15	0.055
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.65	0.000 **
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.36	0.000 **
Altruistic Motivations	0.11	0.000 **
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.09	0.170
Instrumental Motivations	0.04	0.333
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.08	0.187
Career Role Salience	0.06	0.259
Marital Role Salience	0.04	0.350
Parental Role Salience	-0.06	0.245
Career Role Involvement	0.21	0.010 **
Marital Role Involvement	0.06	0.272
Parental Role Involvement	0.09	0.172

**p \leq .01

* p \leq .05

TABLE E8
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MOTHER'S AFFECTION

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.27	0.002**
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.81	0.000**
Father's Control Behavior	0.35	0.000**
Mother's Control Behavior	0.61	0.000**
Father's Control Feelings	0.41	0.000**
Mother's Control Feelings	0.65	0.000**
Father's Affection	0.26	0.002**
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.42	0.000**
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.50	0.000**
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.24	0.004**
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.68	0.000**
Altruistic Motivations	-0.13	0.077
Fatalistic Motivations	0.06	0.270
Instrumental Motivations	-0.04	0.330
Narcissistic Motivations	0.10	0.143
Career Role Salience	-0.10	0.133
Marital Role Salience	0.04	0.350
Parental Role Salience	0.07	0.239
Career Role Involvement	0.03	0.393
Marital Role Involvement	-0.03	0.368
Parental Role Involvement	-0.00	0.479

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E9
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - FATHER'S PARENTAL DISAPPROVAL

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.38	0.000 **
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.44	0.000 **
Father's Control Behavior	0.64	0.000 **
Mother's Control Behavior'	0.54	0.000 **
Father's Control Feelings	0.55	0.000 **
Mother's Control Feelings	0.39	0.000 **
Father's Affection	0.36	0.000 **
Mother's Affection	0.42	0.000 **
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.68	0.000 **
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.13	0.073
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.54	0.000 **
Altruistic Motivations	0.03	0.373
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.06	0.265
Instrumental Motivations	0.04	0.322
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.03	0.384
Career Role Salience	-0.11	0.112
Marital Role Salience	-0.11	0.108
Parental Role Salience	0.00	0.479
Career Role Involvement	0.00	0.492
Marital Role Involvement	-0.10	0.148
Parental Role Involvement	-0.12	0.091

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E10
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MOTHER'S PARENTAL DISAPPROVAL

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.14	0.064
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.54	0.000 **
Father's Control Behavior	0.48	0.000 **
Mother's Control Behavior	0.60	0.000 **
Father's Control Feelings	0.41	0.000 **
Mother's Control Feelings	0.54	0.000 **
Father's Affection	0.15	0.055
Mother's Affection	0.50	0.000 **
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.68	0.000 **
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.11	0.112
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.55	0.000 **
Altruistic Motivations	-0.06	0.269
Fatalistic Motivations	0.03	0.384
Instrumental Motivations	-0.04	0.332
Narcissistic Motivations	0.05	0.290
Career Role Salience	-0.13	0.080
Marital Role Salience	-0.07	0.224
Parental Role Salience	0.15	0.047 *
Career Role Involvement	-0.02	0.410
Marital Role Involvement	-0.10	0.140
Parental Role Involvement	0.00	0.486

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E11
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - FATHER'S INCLUSION BEHAVIOR

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.70	0.000**
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.22	0.007**
Father's Control Behavior	0.19	0.017*
Mother's Control Behavior	0.17	0.030*
Father's Control Feelings	0.25	0.003**
Mother's Control Feelings	0.17	0.031*
Father's Affection	0.65	0.000**
Mother's Affection	0.24	0.004**
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.13	0.073
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.11	0.112
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.42	0.000**
Altruistic Motivations	0.05	0.295
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.10	0.128
Instrumental Motivations	-0.02	0.413
Narcissistic Motivations	0.04	0.318
Career Role Salience	-0.01	0.450
Marital Role Salience	-0.01	0.454
Parental Role Salience	0.06	0.253
Career Role Involvement	0.10	0.141
Marital Role Involvement	0.02	0.427
Parental Role Involvement	0.05	0.292

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E12
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MOTHER'S INCLUSION BEHAVIOR

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.38	0.000**
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.65	0.000**
Father's Control Behavior	0.39	0.000**
Mother's Control Behavior	0.43	0.000**
Father's Control Feelings	0.40	0.000**
Mother's Control Feelings	0.48	0.000**
Father's Affection	0.36	0.000**
Mother's Affection	0.68	0.000**
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.54	0.000**
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.55	0.000**
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.42	0.000**
Altruistic Motivations	-0.14	0.068
Fatalistic Motivations	0.08	0.180
Instrumental Motivations	-0.10	0.140
Narcissistic Motivations	0.13	0.086
Career Role Salience	-0.11	0.119
Marital Role Salience	-0.01	0.457
Parental Role Salience	0.13	0.070
Career Role Involvement	0.01	0.437
Marital Role Involvement	-0.07	0.235
Parental Role Involvement	-0.02	0.418

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E13
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - ALTRUISTIC MOTIVATIONS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.14	0.067
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	-0.06	0.257
Father's Control Behavior	-0.01	0.474
Mother's Control Behavior	0.01	0.457
Father's Control Feelings	0.02	0.435
Mother's Control Feelings	-0.01	0.478
Father's Affection	0.11	0.107
Mother's Affection	-0.13	0.077
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.03	0.373
Mother's Parental Disapproval	-0.06	0.269
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.05	0.295
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	-0.14	0.068
Fatalistic Motivation	-0.29	0.001 **
Instrumental Motivations	-0.13	0.080
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.63	0.000 **
Career Role Salience	0.07	0.240
Marital Role Salience	-0.03	0.355
Parental Role Salience	-0.24	0.004 **
Career Role Involvement	0.04	0.336
Marital Role Involvement	0.01	0.437
Parental Role Involvement	-0.02	0.428

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E14
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - FATALISTIC MOTIVATIONS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	-0.15	0.048*
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	-0.11	0.106
Father's Control Behavior	-0.02	0.402
Mother's Control Behavior	-0.03	0.360
Father's Control Feelings	-0.08	0.179
Mother's Control Feelings	-0.01	0.471
Father's Affection	-0.09	0.170
Mother's Affection	0.06	0.270
Father's Parental Dissapproval	-0.06	0.265
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.03	0.384
Father's Inclusion Behavior	-0.10	0.128
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.08	0.108
Altruistic Motivations	-0.29	0.001**
Instrumental Motivations	-0.51	0.000**
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.23	0.007**
Career Role Salience	0.08	0.188
Marital Role Salience	0.18	0.025*
Parental Role Salience	0.07	0.240
Career Role Involvement	-0.07	0.211
Marital Role Involvement	-0.01	0.455
Parental Role Involvement	-0.03	0.360

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E15
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATIONS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.09	0.177
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.05	0.287
Father's Control Behavior	0.07	0.216
Mother's Control Behavior	-0.05	0.298
Father's Control Feelings	0.10	0.144
Mother's Control Feelings	-0.02	0.401
Father's Affection	0.04	0.333
Mother's Affection	-0.04	0.330
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.04	0.322
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.04	0.332
Father's Inclusion Behavior	-0.02	0.413
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	-0.10	0.140
Altruistic Motivations	-0.13	0.080
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.51	0.000**
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.20	0.014*
Career Role Salience	-0.14	0.063
Marital Role Salience	-0.15	0.053
Parental Role Salience	0.01	0.437
Career Role Involvement	0.02	0.419
Marital Role Involvement	-0.15	0.047*
Parental Role Involvement	-0.11	0.107

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E16
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - NARCISSISTIC MOTIVATIONS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	-0.09	0.177
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.10	0.129
Father's Control Behavior	-0.05	0.289
Mother's Control Behavior	0.06	0.273
Father's Control Feelings	-0.04	0.329
Mother's Control Feelings	0.03	0.389
Father's Affection	-0.08	0.187
Mother's Affection	0.10	0.133
Father's Parental Disapproval	-0.03	0.384
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.05	0.290
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.04	0.318
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.13	0.086
Altruistic Motivations	-0.63	0.000 **
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.23	0.007 **
Instrumental Motivations	-0.20	0.014 *
Career Role Salience	-0.02	0.406
Marital Role Salience	-0.02	0.430
Parental Role Salience	0.16	0.044 *
Career Role Involvement	0.02	0.434
Marital Role Involvement	0.12	0.103
Parental Role Involvement	0.13	0.074

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E17
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - CAREER ROLE SALIENCE

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	-0.04	0.342
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	-0.22	0.008 **
Father's Control Behavior	-0.13	0.071
Mother's Control Behavior	-0.04	0.326
Father's Control Feelings	-0.03	0.385
Mother's Control Feelings	-0.05	0.306
Father's Affection	0.06	0.259
Mother's Affection	-0.10	0.133
Father's Parental Disapproval	-0.11	0.112
Mother's Parental Disapproval	-0.13	0.080
Father's Inclusion Behavior	-0.01	0.450
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	-0.11	0.119
Altruistic Motivations	0.07	0.240
Fatalistic Motivations	0.08	0.188
Instrumental Motivations	-0.14	0.063
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.02	0.406
Marital Role Salience	0.24	0.004 **
Parental Role Salience	-0.06	0.265
Career Role Involvement	0.62	0.000 **
Marital Role Involvement	0.40	0.000 **
Parental Role Involvement	0.07	0.213

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E18
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MARITAL ROLE SALIENCE

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.01	0.479
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.02	0.426
Father's Control Behavior	-0.04	0.334
Mother's Control Behavior	0.03	0.381
Father's Control Feelings	0.02	0.400
Mother's Control Feelings	0.02	0.402
Father's Affection	0.04	0.350
Mother's Affection	0.04	0.350
Father's Parental Disapproval	-0.11	0.108
Mother's Parental disapproval	-0.07	0.224
Father's Inclusion Behavior	-0.01	0.454
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	-0.01	0.457
Altruistic Motivations	-0.03	0.355
Fatalistic Motivations	0.18	0.025*
Instrumental Motivations	-0.15	0.053
Narcissistic Motivations	-0.02	0.430
Career Role Salience	0.24	0.004**
Parental Role Salience	0.41	0.000**
Career Role Involvement	-0.03	0.368
Marital Role Involvement	0.27	0.001**
Parental Role Involvement	0.23	0.005**

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E19
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - PARENTAL ROLE SALIENCE

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.02	0.417
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	0.10	0.140
Father's Control Behavior	0.16	0.037 *
Mother's Control Behavior	0.09	0.169
Father's Control Feelings	0.07	0.235
Mother's Control Feelings	0.01	0.453
Father's Affection	-0.06	0.235
Mother's Affection	0.07	0.239
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.00	0.479
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.15	0.047 *
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.06	0.253
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.13	0.079
Altruistic Motivations	-0.24	0.004 **
Fatalistic Motivations	0.07	0.240
Instrumental Motivations	0.01	0.437
Narcissistic Motivations	0.16	0.044 *
Career Role Salience	-0.06	0.265
Marital Role Salience	0.41	0.000 **
Career Role Involvement	-0.05	0.300
Marital Role Involvement	-0.02	0.416
Parental Role Involvement	-0.01	0.451

**p \leq .01

* p \leq .05

TABLE E20
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - CAREER ROLE INVOLVEMENT

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.18	0.024*
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	-0.07	0.221
Father's Control Behavior	0.10	0.136
Mother's Control Behavior	0.06	0.268
Father's Control Feelings	0.20	0.015*
Mother's Control Feelings	0.06	0.245
Father's Affection	0.21	0.010**
Mother's Affection	0.03	0.393
Father's Parental Disapproval	0.00	0.492
Mother's Parental Disapproval	-0.02	0.410
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.10	0.141
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	0.01	0.437
Altruistic Motivations	0.04	0.336
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.07	0.211
Instrumental Motivations	0.02	0.419
Narcissistic Motivations	0.02	0.434
Career Role Salience	0.62	0.000**
Marital Role Salience	-0.03	0.368
Parental Role Salience	-0.05	0.300
Marital Role Involvement	0.43	0.000**
Parental Role Involvement	0.26	0.002**

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E21
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - MARITAL ROLE INVOLVEMENT

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.05	0.285
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	-0.09	0.164
Father's Control Behavior	0.01	0.542
Mother's Control Behavior	0.09	0.166
Father's Control Feelings	0.04	0.327
Mother's Control Feelings	0.01	0.438
Father's Affection	0.06	0.272
Mother's Affection	-0.03	0.368
Father's Parental Disapproval	-0.10	0.148
Father's Parental Disapproval	-0.10	0.140
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.02	0.427
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	-0.07	0.235
Altruistic Motivations	0.01	0.437
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.01	0.455
Instrumental Motivations	-0.15	0.047 *
Narcissistic Motivations	0.12	0.103
Career Role Salience	0.40	0.000 **
Marital Role Salience	0.27	0.001 **
Parental Role Salience	-0.02	0.416
Career Role Involvement	0.43	0.000 **
Parental Role Involvement	0.32	0.000 **

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE E22
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - PARENTAL ROLE INVOLVEMENT

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Father's Inclusion Feelings	0.05	0.303
Mother's Inclusion Feelings	-0.05	0.309
Father's Control Behavior	-0.10	0.150
Mother's Control Behavior	0.06	0.270
Father's Control Feelings	-0.05	0.292
Mother's Control Feelings	-0.04	0.351
Father's Affection	0.09	0.172
Mother's Affection	-0.00	0.479
Father's Parental Disapproval	-0.12	0.091
Mother's Parental Disapproval	0.00	0.486
Father's Inclusion Behavior	0.05	0.292
Mother's Inclusion Behavior	-0.02	0.418
Altruistic Motivations	-0.02	0.428
Fatalistic Motivations	-0.03	0.360
Instrumental Motivations	-0.11	0.107
Narcissistic Motivations	0.13	0.074
Career Role Salience	0.07	0.213
Marital Role Salience	0.23	0.005 **
Parental Role Salience	-0.01	0.451
Career Role Involvement	0.26	0.002 **
Marital Role Involvement	0.32	0.000 **

**p \leq .01

* p \leq .05

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Janet Reading was born in Upland, California in 1954. She received her Bachelor of Science degree in psychology from Hood College in 1976. After being employed at the University of Michigan for one year, she pursued graduate training at Wake Forest University. She obtained her Masters in Education with an emphasis in college counseling in 1978. From 1978 to 1980, Ms. Reading was a college counselor at Allegheny College in Pennsylvania as well as a consultant to the local home of refuge for women experiencing spouse abuse. She began her doctoral studies in August of 1980 at the Department of Counselor Education of the University of Florida, specializing in marriage and family therapy.


While her primary training has been in direct counseling, Ms. Reading has taught several courses from the technical level to co-teaching at the graduate level. She is a member of several professional organizations and has presented programs at the state level.

Currently, Ms. Reading is employed at Hancock-Brooke Mental Health Service in Wierton, West Virginia, conducting marriage and family therapy. She intends to instruct psychology at the local community college this spring in addition to continuing therapy services.

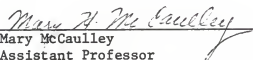
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